PAKISTAN YEAR-BOOK 1971

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Foreword

The *Year-Book, 1971*, is being published at a time when the country is passing through a crucial phase of its history, both internally and in terms of its external relations. Nation-wide elections have been held, but subsequent upheavals, of which an account is given in the chapters on *Constitution and Legal Systems* and on *Government*, have prevented the restoration of a democratic constitution. This is now, being drafted by a Committee appointed by the President, and will when completed be presented to the National Assembly, which is to be convened by the President as soon as circumstances permit.

There is going to be no lack of problems, political as well as economic; but one must not forget that every problem brings with it an opportunity of finding an answer that will obviate the problem itself. This can be done with initiative, courage and vision, and the capacity to find solutions to difficulties rather than difficulties for solutions. There is already a greater awareness among the people of the importance and urgency of self-reliance in meeting the tasks that lie ahead. The national leadership has taken up the challenge. Behind it all, and towering above the scene, stands the imposing figure of the Quaid, and one can almost hear him repeat and restress his three inspiring watchwords—Faith, Unity and Discipline.

The *Year-Book* is intended to be an authoritative and up-to-date reference work on Pakistan, with special reference to the developments of the past year. It is hoped that the reader will find it interesting, informative and useful. Its various chapters contain information on major developments in the relevant sectors of the life and economy of the country during the year ending June 30, 1970, set against the general background of progress made since Independence. In addition, the *Year-Book* contains important

supplementary data on certain events up to July 1971.

In this edition special efforts have again been made to provide lively illustrations of the life and activity of the people of Pakistan, particularly in the field of economic endeavour. In addition to what has been said in the *Acknowledgements*, I should once again like to thank the Department of Films and Publications for their full co-operation in this endeavour.

A number of unavoidable circumstances have this year again delayed the scheduled publication of the *Year-Book*. Revised figures for the Third Plan implementation became available only in April 1971, and the chapters on *Constitution and Legal System* and on *Government* had to be delayed till the last possible moment to present a coherent picture of the post-election situation. The delay has thus been utilized to include important up-to-date material on significant new developments, including a supplement reproducing the texts of the President's Address to the Nation on June 28, 1971, and the 1971/72 Budget Speech of June 26, 1971.

As a reference work, the *Year-Book* is intended to serve as a comprehensive and readable source of up-to-date information for students, scholars, professional people, and the general reader. Pakistan is a country hard at work, which has more than its share of problems in almost every walk of life, but is tackling them with confidence and determination. The *Year-Book* thus reflects both the problems and the directions in which solutions are being sought and worked out.

Mumtaz Hasan,
Chairman,
National Publishing House Limited.

Karachi,
July 15, 1971.

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NPH appreciatively records its thanks to the artists whose works have been reproduced in the chapter on Contemporary Art; and its gratitude for the valuable contributions of the following writers in the preparation of certain chapters: Dr. Mujtaba Razvi on Foreign Relations; Syed Zawwar Hasan on Sports; the late Maúlana Abdul Qadir and Mian Syed Rasul Rasa in Pashto Literature; Dr. Ali Ashraf on Bengali Literature; Pir Hussamuddin Rashdi on Sindhi Literature; Mr. Safdar Mir on Panjabi Literature; Mr. Mohammad Sardar Khan on Baluchi Literature; Mr. Shan-ul-Haq Haqqi on Urdu Literature, Mr. Nadir Husain on Contemporary Art—and Mr. B.A. Dar for the Index.

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Contents

Land and People

PAKISTAN is a country that includes an eastern and a western zone separated by more than 1,000 miles of Indian territory. The whole of Pakistan extends over a total area of 365,529 miles, of which 55,126 square miles are situated in the East and 310,403 square miles in the West.

East Pakistan: This zone is located between the latitude of 20°30′ and 26°45′ North; and between the longitudes 88° and 92°50′ East. On its north, east and west is India. In the south there is the Bay of Bengal. For a small stretch in the south east, it has a common border with Burma.

East Pakistan mostly consists of low, flat plains, intersected by numerous rivers, their distributaries, canals, lakes, swamps and marshes. The gentleness of the gradient can be judged from the fact that many places, although about 100 miles from the sea, are less than 30 feet above sea level. The slope is less than five inches per mile. But there are hilly areas in the north and south-east.

East Pakistan may be divided into three physical regions : (*i*) old alluvial (pleistocene) deposits; (*ii*) recent flood-plain; and (iii) the Chittagong Hill Tracts.

Pleistocene Area : The large part of the pleistocene area which is known as *Barind* covers about 3,600 square miles; the most important of the other parts is the Madhupur Jungle. The flood plain of the river Mahananda flanks the west side of the *Barind*, and the Karatoya river describes the eastern margin. Describing the north-eastern flank of the *Barind* is a north-west to south-east fault 40 miles long, upthrown to the south-west. The south-westward tilting of the eastern part of the *Barind*, periodic disastrous earthquakes and major changes in stream diversions, all suggest significant structural activity in this region.

North of the city of Dacca lies the 1,585 square-mile Madhupur Jungle. Alleviations on the Madhupur surface range from approximately 20 feet in the south and east to a maximum of 100 feet above sea level. A remarkable characteristic of the Madhupur Jungle is the abrupt western margin separating the low, flat flood-plain from the uneven, highly dissected pleistocene surface. The entire irregular margin is formed by a series of six echelon faults, ranging from 6 to 13 miles in length. The Madhupur pleistocene island has been important in the flow pattern of the river Brahmaputra and its alluvial activity in East Pakistan. Lalmai, Sylhet and Chhatak Hills are the three other pleistocene outliers. The Lalmai Hills consist of an uplifted block bounded by faults. The other two areas are of similar origin, but no faults are evident, possibly because of the rapid destruction of faults and scarps by monsoon rainfalls. The Sylhet Hills cover 72 square miles, and attain a maximum elevation of 260 to 300 feet above sea level. These hills are associated with numerous low swampy areas (*hoaurs*) in the Sylhet basin. Structurally, the Sylhet basin, is probably the most active part of East Pakistan. The pleistocene sediments are flood-plain deposits of the earlier Ganges and Brahmaputra rivers. That they occur in several extensive areas above the level of the present flood-plain indicates that there have been differential movements between pleistocene and recent times.

Recent Flood-Plain : This is formed by recent deposits, in the shape of combined deltaic masses and flood-plains, of the Ganges, Brahmaputra and Meghna rivers and covers more than 50,000 square miles. This big region can be divided into four parts: (i) Alluvial Fans ; (ii) Tippera Surface ; (iii) Sylhet Basin; and (iv) Deltaic Plains.

The Teesta, Atrai, Mahananda, Purnabhaba, Old Jamuna and Karatoya rivers rise as a part of the drainage system of the Himalayan foothills. These and many other streams have developed extensive alluvial fans. Downstream, these rivers and streams gradually flatten their gradients and ultimately become the tributaries of the Ganges and Brahmaputra systems.

The Tippera surface and Sylhet basin are structurally active areas. The Tippera surface has been gaining elevation in the order ot 4 to 6 feet, while the Sylhet basin has subsided by about 30 to 40 feet within the last few hundred years.

The remaining region consists of the recent deltaic plain, which , geologically, is a very complex area. It is the site of the sedimentary deposits by two of the world's major rivers, and it comprises a number of overlapping sub-deltas. The deltaic region is constantly subsiding, owing mainly to what is called the compaction of recent sediments and possibly to a structural downwarping.

Chittagong Hill Tracts: These comprise a number of hill ranges running north to south and enclosing longitudinal river valleys. The hills rise in tapering masses, and at the top are generally no wider than 120 feet. The highest Peak in East Pakistan is Keokradong at the south-eastern extremity of the region, rising to 4,034 feet above sea level.



A valley in Chitral with Mt. Tirich Mir in background.

A track through a Sylhet tea estate.





A young
boy in a
fruit orchard
at Gilgit.



A
hut at a village
near Chittagong.

West Pakistan : Comprising the four provinces of Baluchistan, the North-West Frontier, the Panjab and Sind, this zone is located between the latitudes of 23°30′ and 36°45′ North and between the longitudes of 61° and 75°30′ East. On its east and south-east lies India. On the north and north-west is Afghanistan, on the west Iran, and in the south the Arabian Sea. It has a common border with China along its Gilgit Agency and Baltistan. The USSR is separated from Pakistan by a narrow strip of Afghan territory called Wakhan.

West Pakistan can be divided into seven major physiographic units or regions : (i) northern mountains ; (ii) western bordering mountains ; (iii) Salt Range and Potwar Plateau; (iv) Upper Indus Plains; (v) Lower Indus Plains; (vi) Baluchistan Plateau ; and (vii) Thar Desert.

The Himalayan and trans-Himalayan ranges constitute the bulk of the northern mountains. Included in the trans-Himalayans is the Karakorum range, which is about 20,000 feet high. Its highest peak K-2 (Mount Godwin Austen), rises to 28,250 feet. In the north-west lies the Hindukush range, with Tirich Mir as its highest peak.

These northern mountains intercept winds from the Arabian Sea and the Bay of Bengal, and thus are guardians of the rainfall in West Pakistan. At the same time, they form a great barrier to cold winds moving from Central Asia towards the plains of West Pakistan.

The western bordering mountains stand in the west of the Indus plain. Three minor ranges run south from the Hindukush to the Kabul river, and between these ranges flow Swat, the Panjkora, and the Chitrak-Kunar rivers. South of the Kabul river lies the famous Khyber Pass. The pass begins at Jamrud, about 10 miles from Peshawar, and runs for 23 miles up to Torkham, a frontier station between Afghanistan and Pakistan.

The Salt Range begins near the Jhelum District and runs south-west for some distance before turning north-west to cross the Indus near Kalabagh. West of the Indus, the Salt Range continues south into the districts of Bannu and Dera Ismail Khan. Large quantities of rock salt and other minerals, such as gypsum and coal, are found in this range.

North of the salt range is the Potwar Plateau, about 2,000 feet above sea level. A large part of the Plateau has been dissected and eroded by the action of running water, and it presents a varied landscape.

South of the Himalayas and the Salt Range are vast plains stretching down to the Arabian Sea. The Upper Indus Plain is divided into several *doabs*, meaning the land which lies between two rivers. The Rechna Doab is between the Ravi and the Chenab, and the Chaj Doab between the Jhelum and the Chenab. Between the Jhelum-Chenab and the Indus lies the largest of the *doabs*, the Sind Sagar Doab, also known as Thal.

Below Mithankot begin the Lower Indus Plains. These Plains differ from the Upper Indus Plains in that they have been formed by the changing course of a single great river, and the deposits are of comparatively recent origin. The river flows very slowly; and the silt carried by it is largely deposited on its bed, thereby raising it above the level of the sandy plain. The land on either side is protected by the construction of embankments

called *bunds*.

The large Plateau of Baluchistan lies west of the Lower Indus Plains. Dry hills run across the Plateau from north-west to south-west. The Toba Kakar and Chagai ranges in the north separate it from Afghanistan. The central Brahui and Makran ranges lie in the centre and the coastal Makran Range skirts the south of the Plateau. The mountains in the north-west are higher than those in the south, and contain valuable deposits of coal, iron, chromite and other minerals.

South-east of the Indus valley or, more precisely, of the Lower Indus Plains, is the Thar Desert. This is a part of the larger Rajputana Desert which extends into Pakistan from India, and has salt lakes in its depressions.

In the southern portion of the Lower Indus Plains, the Indus is a slow, majestic stream, several miles wide in the rainy season. Its bed has been rising, making it shallower, and *bunds* are needed to protect the adjacent areas from flood, which are devastated if any of the *bunds* are breached. South of Thatta begins the sub-region of the delta, which is marked by a network of flowing or abandoned river beds. The coastal strip is flooded at high tides and has mangrove swamps.

Adjoining the delta on the east is the Rann of Kutch divided between Pakistan and India according to the 1968 agreement on the Rann. Apart from some grazing lands, it consists of a marshy salt plain almost flush with the sea level. It is an old marine gulf which has silted up and is flooded with sea-water during the monsoon season.

Climate : Climatically Pakistan offers a great measure of diversity. It ranges from the wet tropical climate of the areas south of Chittagong to the most arid of the Kharan Desert. Pakistan contains some of the hottest regions of the world in the Jacobabad and Sibi districts, while parts of Baluchistan and the northern mountain areas are characterized by extreme cold. In East Pakistan, the climate is generally humid, equable and tropical, and is characterized by rain and flood. These factors dominate its environment. West pakistan, in contrast, possesses a dry, continental climate, where rainfall is scanty. The diversity of climates and physical structures makes it possible to cultivate a large variety of crops, so that Pakistan's agricultural economy is well diversified and balanced.

In East Pakistan, the mean minimum temperature in January varies from 49°F to 56°F, while in July it ranges from 79°F to 80°F. The range of mean maximum temperatures varies from 75°F to 78°F in January and from 86°F to 89°F in July. The hottest months are April and May when temperatures of over 105°F have at times been recorded. The mean annual temperature varies from 57°F to 80°F.

The physical conditions vary so greatly in West Pakistan as to make the average or mean temperature virtually meaningless. Each physical region's average has to be seen in its specific context. In the plains the mean minimum temperature in January varies from 40°F to 57°F and in July from 79°F to 87°F. The mean maximum temperature in January varies from 63°F to 78°F and in June from 90°F to 114°F. An absolute maximum of

126°F has been recorded at Jacobabad. Over large parts of West Pakistan, a mean daily maximum of 110°F to 112°F is common in summer, while in winter the mean minimum is around 40°F to 50°F, though at times it goes down much lower. The mean minimum temperatures in the northern mountains and in parts of Baluchistan are well below freezing point.

Rainfall : Average annual rainfall in East Pakistan varies from 50 inches in the west to 100 inches in the south-east, while in the submontane region of north-eastern Sylhet it is about 200 inches. The lowest average rainfall is recorded at Lalpur (Rajshahi) at 47.9 inches, while the highest rainfall average is recorded at Lallakhel (Sylhet) with 225.8 inches. More than two-thirds of this rainfall is concentrated in the months of June to September (monsoon). These rains are associated with tropical cyclones. The storms which form in the Bay of Bengal, in autumn, often prolong the rainy season into October and even November. December and January are the driest months. The rainfall in any of these two months is not more than 1.5 inches and generally less than half an inch.

There is a short pre-monsoon rainy season from April to May. It is due to thunderstorms or north-westerly gales. The rainfall in this season varies from 15 to 29 inches.

West Pakistan suffers from a general deficiency of rainfall. In the *plains*, annual averages range from 5 inches in the northern parts of the *Lower Indus* Plains to 35 inches in the Himalayan submontane region. It is monsoonic in origin and takes place late in the summer. Occasionally light rains follow the dust storms which usually occur early in the warm season. Baluchistan is the driest part of West Pakistan with an average of 8 inches of rain, which goes down to a mere 2 inches in the Kharan Desert. On the southern ranges of the Himalayas, 50 inches of precipitation takes place, while in the lee of these mountains the rainfall is hardly 6 inches (in Gilgit and Baltistan).

Rainfall also occurs from western cyclonic disturbances originating in the Mediterranean. This is appreciable in the western mountains and the immediate forelying areas, where the rainfall average ranges from 10 inches to 30 inches. The contribution of these western disturbances to the rainfall over the plains is about 1.5 inches. A large part of the precipitation in the northern mountain system is in the form of snow which feeds the rivers.

As a consequence of the rainfall distribution, East Pakistan's climate is characterized by humidity which is high throughout the year. In summer it is generally over 80 per cent, and in winter rarely less than 70 per cent.

Due to low rainfall and high diurnal ranges of temperature, the humidity in West Pakistan is comparatively low. Only the coastal strip has a high humidity.

Soils : Soils of East Pakistan belong to the wet group called pedalfers that are alluvial in nature. The *Barind* and Madhupur Jungle are characteristic of old alluvium or sandy loam (locally known as *pali*). The new alluvium is widely distributed in the plains, particularly in the vicinity of rivers.

South-western areas are characterized by clayey loams. For the most part, clay and clayey soils are characteristic of East Pakistan. In certain coastal areas which sea-water inundates, saline soils are found. The effect of the leeching of the soil is minimized through heavy annual deposits of silt made by the rivers and the moving masses of water.

In West Pakistan, soils show considerable variety. Most of them, however, fall under the dry group called pedocals, possessing a high content of calcium carbonate and a low content of humus or organic matter. Extensive use of irrigation waters has put these soils—themselves characteristic of low and erratic rainfall—to extensive use, and they are generally fertile.

Soils in the plains are alluvial, both old and new. In most of Baluchistan, Thar and the Thal deserts, soils are wind-blown deposits, called loess, mixed with alluvium. Due to the arid nature of the climate, soil erosion through wind direction poses a great problem, particularly in the Potwar Plateau. This is not a problem in East Pakistan because the ground is generally moist and plant cover is generally plentiful.

Vegetation : East Pakistan's tropical climate, heavy rainfall and fertile soil combine to clothe most of the region in a lush green mantle throughout the year. Within the country as a whole, this greenery presents a striking contrast to the dun and brown of much of the plains of West Pakistan.

The most common tree of the countryside is the mango (*Mangifera Indica*), which when it does not bear fruit, is used for timber. Next comes the betelnut palm (*Areca Catechu*), of which there are estimated to be over 200 million trees. Other common trees include the madar, jiyol or badi, and hijol, followed by the banana (which produces very fine fruit), coconut, jam, bamboo (of which the Muli variety is used for the manufacture of paper), khajur palm and rattan palm. Along ditches and by the side of groves there are a great variety of flowering plants, including orchids. Banyan, oshot and the rain tree are grown for the massive shade they provide, and several older specimens of these have a girth of 15 feet and over. Finally, specific mention must also be made of the fruit-bearing plants of jak fruit (a food in many parts of East Pakistan), litchi, papaya, cheeku and mangosteen.

Although gardening is not particularly popular in East Pakistan, a great variety of sweet-scented flowers are widely grown. Water lillies grow in profusion, and the white Bengal Rose (*Rosa involcrata*), though strictly extra-tropical, is also fairly common together with various acclimatized garden roses.

Some 15.5 per cent of the East Pakistan, estimated at 8,513 square miles, is covered by forests; but only about 9 per cent—4,530 square miles—comprise reserved or protected forests, so that under the pressure of population, unprotected forests are being cut down for the cultivation of crops.

East Pakistan's forests differ from those of other tropical areas by the presence of such gregarious trees as the sal (*Shorea Robusta*), of which there are almost pure stands in the Central and Northern Region; the



A Manipuri folk dancer of East Pakistan.

Murree in winter.





...oats in an East Pakistan sunset.

Fields and mountains of Swat.



sundri (*Heritiera Minor*), from which the Sunderbans probably get their name, and the gewa (*Excoecaria Agallocha*), also growing in gregarious profusion within the Sunderbans; garjan (*Dipterocarpus Spp.*), occupying large tracts of the hill forests in the east, which also possess some tropical species of oak and chestnut.

The forested areas have been classified into nine divisions and several categories. The divisions are: Chittagong Hill Tracts North; Chittagong Hill Tracts South; Cox's Bazar; Chittagong; Sylhet; Dacca; Mymensingh; Central Sunderbans. The categories are: reserved; acquired; protected; private; vested; controlled; Unclassified State. Steps are being taken to reserve a major portion of the acquired, private, vested and controlled forests.

The major timber produce include the following from the Chittagong and Sylhet forests—teak (first planted at Kaptai in 1867 and now almost as good as standard Burmese teak), jarul, gamar, chapalish, boilam, gajan, kamdeb, champ, tali, telsur, toon, chikrasi, pitraj, banderbulla, chundal, shimul and civit, generally valued in about that order; from the Dacca, Mymensingh and Central Division—sal and koroi; from the Sunderbans—sundri, keora, baen, pasur, dhundul and amur.

Other important forest trees and plants include the following : the big-leaved mahogany (*Swietenia Macrophylla*) first tried out near Kaptai in 1891 and now being developed in plantation at other places; rubber (*Hevea Brasiliensis*) which has been promisingly introduced at Ramu and Kalirchara in the Cox's Bazar area, near Raozan and other places in the Chittagong region, where the Silvicultural Garden of Hazarikhil is also located; sandalwood (*Pterocapus Santalinus*) and rosewood (*Dalbergia Latifolia*) are also being grown in the Chittagong Division; cashew, tendu (*Diospyros Melanoxylon*), coffee and the medicinal plant, *Rauwolfia Serpentina*, are being tried out in the Madhupur forests, where results on coffee and tendu are encouraging.

There are few areas of grassland, for most of the non-forested area is cultivated. Grasslands are found in the areas from north Comilla to south-west Sylhet and south-east Mymensingh, in the Madhupur tract, and in the upper reaches of Atrai and Tangan in the north-west. Savannah are also found in all river areas, which are of two kinds: Sungrass (*Sankholas*) or thatchgrass and khagra (*Sacchareum Spontaneum* or *Narenger*). The latter is found along the banks of larger rivers or swamps.

In West Pakistan, except for the Himalayan region, low rainfall obtains and the vegetation in the plains is characteristic of dry regions. It consists mainly of tough wiry grass or dry low bushes with relatively low trees in less dry areas. A significant part of the province is a desert which contains little vegetation. Forests cover approximately 2.5 per cent of the area, including some forests that are really man-made, through irrigation. Examples of these are Chhanga Manga and Chichawatni in the District of Sahiwal, and Wan Bachran in the Thal area. Two important trees are shisham (*Daldbergia Sissco*) and mulberry; the former is good for making furniture and the latter for sports goods. Along the Indus, in the Lower Indus Plains, there are riverine (*bela*) forests. Shisham and babul (*Acacia*

Arabica) are typical, and the bark of the latter is used for tanning. Groves of date-palm are also common, and there are mangrove types of forests in the coastal region. Pipal (*Ficus Religiosa*), Jand, Karil, Farash and Kikar occur over a wide area.

West Pakistan grows many fruits : mango, guava, papaya, banana, plums, grapes, apple, pear, mèlon, dates, figs, pomegranate and many kinds of citrus fruit. In the area between Lahore and Sahiwal, as also near Sargodha, there are extensive plantations of citrus fruits and flowers. The natural vegetation of the area is xerophytic.

Baluchistan is typified by extremely xerophytic vegetation and large areas are completely devoid of vegetation. In the north-east, where rainfall is better and irrigation is also possible, there are gardens of almond, apple, pear, apricot, cherry, plum, pomegranate, grape and melon.

In the northern mountains, there are clearly demarcated zones of vegetation according to elevation and rainfall. In the foot-hills, below 3,000 feet, are forests of phulai, kao, chinar and wild olive. Above it, there are evergreen soft-wood trees, the most typical of which is deodar. Hardwood, deciduous broad-leaved trees like oak, chestnut and walnut are supported on the warmer and rainier slopes. The dominant tree on the hills up to 5,000 feet is the long-leaved pine with three needles. Between 5,000 and 6,000 feet are found the temperate flora—blue pine with five needles is typical. This is essentially a transitional zone where evergreen oak is also found. Above this height, the oak, too, changes; and between 6,000 and 7,000 feet, there are other trees besides pine and oak, and pine-maple, polar, horse chestnut, ash spruce, yew and fir are abundant. Above 7,000 feet, fir is common, and above 8,000-9,000 feet there are pure stands of them. Ivy climber is also common. Above 10,000 or 11,000 feet is found the birch with white bark, and at this height dwarf willow and juniper are also present. . In the inner and drier valleys, *pinus gerardiana* and *artemisia martitima* grow; the former yields a delicious fruit, the pine nut, while the later is the source of the drug, santonin. Much of the area above 9,000 feet consists of alpine pastures, with different types of alpine flowers, particularly in Swat and the Kaghan valley.

Fauna : Pakistan possesses a great abundance of wild life, including big game which is largely concentrated in the jungles of East Pakistan. Indeed, in this part of Pakistan, not only the forests, but the countryside, too, is alive with a large variety of beasts, birds, reptiles and insects. It is estimated that there are 200 species of mammals, 750 of birds, 150 of reptiles and batrachians, 200 of marine and freshwater fishes, and no less than 10,000 species of insects, several hundred of which are beautiful, including the hawk moths, which look like humming birds hovering over flowers.

Among these many animals there are the Bengal tiger, stalking its solitary way through the undergrowth of the Sunderbans; marine crocodiles (*Crocodilus Porosus*) along the seashore of Barisal and Khulna, and swamp crocodiles in the mangroves of the Sunderbans, which often prey on small spotted deer and are feared as man-eaters; elephant herds, roaming the forests

of Chittagong and North-Eastern Sylhet; the leopard and various other species of large cats, which quite frequently come near populated areas of the countryside, but are most common in the Eastern Chittgagong Region; the small barking deer, which is fairly common in the Chittagong Region, and th large Sambar, which inhabits the same area but is becoming rare; monkeys, gibbon and lemur, which are quite common, but have some rare species like the crab-eating macaque along the Chittagong Coast and the curious slow loris in the densest forests of the East; the chital, which is plentiful in the Sunderbans, but occasionally is also found in the Chittagong Region; and the reticulated python, measuring up to 20 feet in length.

Comparatively rare animals include the bon-goru or banteng, which is a reddish brown wild oxen, sometimes tamed by hill tribes, in the eastern part of the Hill Tracts; the magnificent gour or Asian bison, also in the Hill Tracts; the gural wild goat, which is a variety of goat-antelope, in the southern part of the Hill Tracts and on hill slopes; the nilgai antelope, coming down into the extreme North-West from the Nepal Terai in the harvest season; the Malayan black bear and the sloth bear, which are occasionally found in the Chittagong region. It is only within the last 50 years that the rhinoceros, wild buffalo and barasinga deer have been exterminated, and now the sambar and gaur appear to be on the way out. To prevent the extinction of other species of animals that are ruthlessly hunted, steps are being taken to develop game preserves.

Among birds, the red-breasted parakeet, often in flocks of thousands; the red-vented bulbul; ducks, in flocks of many thousand in the Hoar Basin; the bar-headed geese; the red jungle fowl; the spotted dove and the common green pigeon are all quite common.

In West Pakistan, the waters around Karachi, are excellent fishing grounds, and the surmai often weighs 15-20 lbs. Lobster, prawn, cod, mackerel, whale, shark, dolphin and many others abound.

In the delta region, crocodile, gavial, harmless python, hog deer and wild boar are also to be found. Poisonous snakes, such as the cobra, the viper and the krait, and many kinds of non-poisonous snakes are found in grassy areas.

The northern part of West Pakistan abounds in wild life. The Siberian ibex, the Marcopolo sheep, and the markhor are found. Urial, the frisky goral, and the blue sheep, or bharol, are encountered occasionally. The handsome snow leopard is sometimes met, and the brown bear and black Himalayan bear are also found.

The bird population shows a rich variety. There are over 100 main species of resident birds, of which many sing. There are several varieties of pigeon and pheasant.

On the hillsides, leopards stalk at night, and there are jackal, fox, wild cat, musk-cat, hyena, porcupine, rodents and reptiles.

The plains support those birds and mammals which feed on crops. The waters of the river Indus sustain a rich treasure of water birds: the mallard, teal, shoveller, spoonbill, goose, wild duck, goosender, smew and others. In the southern regions, one finds desert gazelles and blue peacocks.



Rice on sale at an East Pakistani market.

People

The Indo-Pakistan Subcontinent has attracted migrants from both the North-East and the North-West from time immemorial. For thousands of years, people have entered through these routes, settling and mixing with the pre-Dravidian stocks. The process lasted a long time, and eventually the Dravidian type emerged. The migrants and invaders came mainly from Central and Western Asia.

The Dravidians were followed by the Aryans, Greeks, Persians, Arabs, Turks and Mughals, and, as was to be expected, a mixture of races has resulted. The final blend may be said to be a predominantly Caucasian general type, with some Mediterranean strains (strains which are also found in the people of Iran, Afghanistan, Arabia and parts of Turan). In terms of origin, the dominant racial type in Pakistan is the Indo-Aryan.

The later thrusts brought in broad-headed Scythians and Mongoloids. Mongoloid traces are specially notable in the eastern districts of East Pakistan. The people of the north-western part of Pakistan, the Pathans, are mainly an admixture of Turkish and Iranian strains, both being important branches of the Aryan family. The Baluchis in the West trace their origins to the Chaldean branch of the Semitic race, but also show strong Iranian and Turkish influences.

Religion : The overwhelming majority of Pakistanis is Muslim; but Pakistan is also the home of a number of other religions. The largest religious minority is composed of Hindus, concentrated mainly in East Pakistan, though a sprinkling of them is also found in various parts of West Pakistan. There

Portrait of a young boy from Quetta.





A girl in traditional Swati dress.

are about 13 million Hindus, both scheduled castes and higher castes, in East Pakistan, and they constitute nearly 11 per cent of the total population. Christians are also widely spread in both zones of the country. Their numbers are small, and they form only 1.4 per cent of the population in West Pakistan. The Buddhists, concentrated mainly in East Pakistan, number some 370,000. An economically important religious minority mainly concentrated in West Pakistan, particularly in Karachi, is that of the Parsis, numbering about 5,000. Demographic details are given in the tables at the end of this chapter.

Languages : Bengali is spoken exclusively in East Pakistan. In West Pakistan, a number of languages, all belonging to the Aryan group (with the exception of Brohi, which is spoken by a small number of people of Dravidian origin in the Kalat area of West Pakistan), are spoken in different sub-regions. Pashto is spoken in the north-west, Panjabi in the upper Indus Plain, Sindhi in the lower Indus Plain, and Baluchi in most parts of the area known as Baluchistan. Urdu is understood and spoken by a great majority of the people of Pakistan, and apart from the foreign element of English, is the only common linguistic link between people of

different provinces and regions. Thus, although Urdu is in fact the *mother tongue* of only a small minority (mainly refugees from Urdu-speaking areas of India), it is also a national language together with Bengali, and serves as a *lingua franca* within West Pakistan and between East and West Pakistan.

English continues to be used for official purposes. Pending the implementation of proposals to make full use of the national languages, it is still the official language of all the Governments and of higher courts. It is also still the language of a major proportion of higher education and of large-scale commerce.

Regional Characteristics : East Pakistan being, for the most part, a tropical plain of gentle gradient, one does not here find the kind of ruggedness of life, work, speech and culture that is ordinarily associated with people of mountanous regions and colder climates.

Here the accent is on gentleness of temperament, though the capacity for hard work, grit and dogged determination required to cope with the angry moods of nature—manifesting itself in cyclones, tidal bores, and floods—is present in abundance. The Bengali tongue is sweet to the ear and easy to speak.

The pace of the folk-dances, the tunes of the popular songs, the quality of the music, all exemplify this combined trait of gentleness and strength, of rhythm and verve, of joy and sorrow. These, in their turn, mirror the actual rhythm of the working life of the common man.

Pilot of a launch in East Pakistan.





Boats on a river in East Pakistan.

The poets, over the ages, have sung of the eternal verities and of abiding human emotions. They seek, so often, to capture and transmit the joy of a farmer who has just reaped a big crop of paddy; the elated feelings of a fisherman whose net has brought forth a large catch, or his dejection when it is poor; the optimistic ambitions of a jute farmer, who after back-breaking labour, has been able to sell his produce at a good price, or the gloom when he fails to get it; the hopes and fears of men who ply boats on rivers and on the sea; over calm waters and on stormy waves. The life that is lived so near the edge of calamity—floods, boatwreck, drought, cyclones and famine—is full of feeling and sentiment.

The folklore is as much about the land and its rivers as about people and their vicissitudes. There are mystiques for each river; how the Padma is liable suddenly to add to man's woes, for instance. The connection between crops and celebrations, between the fruitfulness of the harvest and the greediness of the moneylender, between visitations of nature and destitution and hunger point towards different facets of daily life.

East Pakistan provides a fascinating example of the directness of the relationship between man's environment and his work, play, art and thought. The special physical features of the land that sustains some 70 million

souls are writ large. Apart from rivers and the rich alluvial soil, the outstanding among these are the rains. Their quantity and timing are both significant. These determine the well-marked phases of the work cycle. The over-all imprint of monsoon over the whole region meets even the casual eye.

The commonest sight is the man in the jute or paddy field. He has to work hard. His looks, clothes and methods of work are eloquent commentaries on the economic and social conditions of the region.

Not having any mountains, East Pakistan is short of road building material, and the number of rivers, rivulets and water channels is so large that every mile of road would need scores of culverts and bridges. It is, therefore, cheaper and more convenient to depend on riverine communications. The boat is the typical means of transport, and a large part of the population therefore lives by plying, making and repairing boats of typical designs.

Rice and fish are the staple food. Every village has a number of ponds—some natural and some artificial. People breed fish in these, as well as fishing in the rivers. Apart from the sale and purchase of rice, jute and handicrafts, the most important function of the village market or *hat*, as it is commonly known, is the selling and buying of fish. The *hat*, a periodical

An old Sindhi woman working in the fields.





Two farmers of the Panjab at leisure.

affair in a village, smells strongly of fish even at a distance.

The quest for fish also takes men to sea. At any moment, on an average 4,000 to 5,000 boats, each containing several men, brave the hazards of deep-sea fishing. A significant proportion of fishermen—accounting for about one-fifth or so of the population—are engaged in 'sea farming'. They

do so in small sail boats with scanty provisions and no modern equipment for maintaining contact with the shore. Each voyage is a saga of human skill, endurance and courage in the face of the elements.

The north-western region of West Pakistan is the home of many a legend. The valorous and freedom-loving Pathans of this rugged mountainous region have of necessity to be hardy and industrious. But they produce poets as well as fighters, and their hospitality has been a byword throughout history.

The Pathan's love of freedom kept the British at bay and unable to exercise full authority in his region. The English soldier always had a healthy respect for the deadly accuracy of this born fighter's fire.

The Panjabi is quintessentially a farmer-soldier, though he is an efficient and hard worker in other occupations too. Usually tall, well-built, active, forward-looking, disciplined and industrious, he makes a very fine soldier. He does not lose his head in victory, nor does he panic against heavier odds. The bulk of the fighting potential of Pakistan's Armed Forces is provided by him.

Culturally, his folk-songs and dances and the rhythm of his life exhibit two outstanding characteristics. There is a generosity of spirit and a deep sense of religion. The positive, optimistic outlook of an active and on-the-march people is combined with a zest for life and a readiness to go out into the unknown.

The fast pace of the folk-dances, such as *luddi* or *bhangra*, is typical of the first aspect. The long and distinguished tradition of deeply devotional Panjabi poetry expresses the other element of the Panjabi outlook and character.

Some faces of children from East Pakistan.



The cultural characteristics of the lower Indus valley people derive from the rich and great sources of the pre-Aryan civilization of Mohenjodaro and the direct impact of Islam, not to mention the constant ingress of influences emanating from the heartland of the Subcontinent, and from Iran and the Persian Gulf territories. The Sindhi way of living and working, the depth as well as the rich variety of the people's sensibilities, seem to echo both the typical geography and the indelible historical influences, The fine handicrafts that are characteristic of the Sindhi region partake of all the traditions and influences which go to form the rich Sindhi lore.

Contentment with one's fortunes, the urge to seek truth and bliss through contemplations of the mysteries of life and man's relationship with God are native to the Sindhi mind.

The Baluchi lore and literature bespeak their tribal history, chivalry and social organization. Their poetry reflects the hopes, aspirations and fears of a mountainous people, whose life and work are intense and hard—such as can only be expected from the stony environment. The sensibilities it exhibits are of a fine nature and of peculiar intensity. The language clearly mirrors the geographical proximity to Iran and Afghanistan. The strong imprint of Islam is equally evident.

A Buddhist monk on a street in East Pakistan.





A Shephered in the North-West Frontier Province.

And it must not be forgotten that in recent times, following the partition of the Subcontinent, several million Muslims came to Pakistan from various regions of India, including such centres of culture and learning as Calcutta, Delhi, the United Provinces, Bihar and Hyderabad-Deccan, and from centres of commerce like Bombay and Ahmedabad. Their way of life mingles with that of the different regions in which they have settled and adds to their variety. But since, comparatively speaking, their number is small, their presence is to be felt most in their contribution to the literature, fine arts and handicrafts of Pakistan and to the development of its commerce and industry.

The Drive for Progress : Rich and ancient as the cultural heritage of Pakistan is, the people feel an impulse for progress that comes both from within and without. The call from within springs from the desire of the people to maintain their freedom, move forward, remove major disparities of wealth within and between regions—and thus attain the means to cope with the demands of the modern world and find an honourable place in the comity of nations.

The influences from without are a consequence of modern means of communication and inherent requirements of industrialization and modern technology. These are constantly impinging on Pakistan. Coupled with the Pakistani's own desire to make good, the external factors describe the direction of the change that is taking place all the time.

The trek from the villages to the çities is the most outstanding change. Then, there is the explosion of expectations : people are now refusing to be content with their traditional lot; they want all the good things of life. Finally, there is the peculiar tendency in the cities towards similarity, if not uniformity, of social habits—largely imposed by the necessity of having to depend upon the same modes and results of production and by the limited space at the disposal of a large number of people.

While the native elements of Pakistani culture provide the basic framework, there are new elements and ways of thought and action. The villages are undergoing a transformation through greater contact with cities and the increasing interchange promoted by the process of development and modern means of communication. Within the cities, on the one hand, strains and traits from various sub-regions are meeting and fusing into one and, on the other, the process is being enriched by the inrush of influences from abroad. Some of the latter harmonize well with the Pakistani way of life, others need considerable adaptation, and still others are perhaps undesirable as well as unsuitable.

Demography : According to the latest decennial census of 1961, the population of Pakistan was just over 93.7 million. Since this census, some sample surveys have been made by different agencies. According to one survey conducted jointly by the Central Statistical Office and the Pakistan

Boats on the Saiful-Maluk Lake in Kaghan.



Institute of Development Economics, an annual growth rate of 2.6 per cent was found in both provinces in 1962. Since then, the Planning Commission has been estimating the growth rate on this basis until 1964/65, and thereafter at an annual growth rate of 2.7 per cent. The Ministry of Home Affairs, however, considers that the current growth rate is only 2.43 per cent. It is also the view of several experts that the 1961 census underestimated the size of the population. The Planning Commission has adopted the following estimates for various years, and more demographic details are given in Tables I–XII :

Planning Commission Population Estimates

1960/61—1970/71

Year	Population in millions		
	Pakistan	East Pakistan	West Pakistan
1960/61	101.45	55.25	46.20
1961/62	104.09	56.69	47.40
1962/63	106.79	58.16	48.63
1963/64	109.56	59.67	49.89
1964/65	112.41	61.22	51.19
1965/66	115.44	62.87	52.57
1966/67	118.56	64.57	53.99
1967/68	121.76	66.31	55.45
1968/69	125.05	68.10	56.95
1969/70	128.43	69.94	58.49
1970/71	131.90	71.83	60.07

(For more recent Planning Commission estimates of population growth see chapter on Family Planning.)

TABLE I

Population by Sex and Area (by District) 1951 and 1961

(Number of persons)

	Locality	Area (sq. miles) 1961	1961 Population[1]			
			Both Sexes	Male	Female	
1	**PAKISTAN**[2]	**3,65,529**	**9,37,20,613**	**4,93,08,645**	**4,44,11,968**	1
2	**EAST PAKISTAN**	**55,126**	**5,08,40,235**	**2,63,48,843**	**2,44,91,392**	2
3	**Rajshahi Division**	**13,347**[3]	**1,18,50,089**	**61,25,732**	**57,24,357**	3
4	Dinajpur District	2,609	17,09,917	9,02,389	8,07,528	4
5	Rangpur District	3,704	37,96,043	19,70,253	18,25,790	5
6	Bogra District	1,502	13,74,105	8,05,939	7,68,166	6
7	Rajshahi District	3,654	28,10,964	14,39,459	13,71,505	7
8	Pabna District	1,877	19,59,060	10,07,692	9,51,368	8
9	**Khulna Division**	**12,810**	**1,00,66,900**	**52,19,770**	**48,47,130**	9
10	Kushtia District	1,371	11,66,262	6,07,198	5,59,064	10
11	Jessore District	2,547	21,90,151	11,40,202	10,49,949	11
12	Khulna District	4,652	24,48,720	12,84,086	11,64,634	12
13	Bakerganj District	4,240	42,61,767	21,88,284	20,73,483	13
14	**Dacca Division**	**11,937**	**1,52,93,596**	**79,48,297**	**73,45,299**	14
15	Mymensingh District	6,361	70,18,906	36,43,633	33,75,273	15
16	Dacca District	2,882	50,95,745	26,78,962	24,16,783	16
17	Faridpur District	2,694	31,78,945	16,25,702	15,53,243	17
18	**Chittagong Division**	**17,032**	**1,36,29,650**	**70,55,044**	**65,74,606**	18
19	Sylhet District	4,785	34,89,589	18,08,446	16,81,143	19
20	Comilla District	2,594	43,88,906	22,45,879	21,43,027	20
21	Noakhali District	1,855	23,83,145	12,07,964	11,75,181	21
22	Chittagong District	2,705	29,82,931	15,80,537	14,02,394	22
23	Chittagong Hill Tracts	5,093	3,85,079	2,12,218	1,72,861	23

Source : Census of Pakistan, Populations 1961, Vol. I. This is also the source of Tables II to XI; and in each of these, the original lakh and crore digit markings have been retained.

[1]Excludes non-Pakistanis.

[2]Excluding Jammu and Kashmir, Gilgit and Baltistan, Junagadh, Manavadar and Pakistan enclaves in India.

[3]The sum of the area figures of the districts of Rajshahi Division slightly disagrees with the Divisional figure due to rounding of decimals.

TABLE I

Population by Sex and Area (by District) 1951 and 1961

(Number of persons)

	Females per 1,000 males	1951[1] Population Both Sexes	Male	Female	Increase/Decrease Population 1951—1961 Number	Per cent	Person per sq. mile 1961	1951	
1	**900**	**7,56,72,496**	**4,00,84,342**	**3,55,88,154**	**1,80,48,117**	**23.9**	**256**	**207**	1
2	**930**	**4,19,32,329**	**2,19,37,575**	**1,99,94,754**	**89,07,906**	**21.2**	**922**	**701**	2
3	**934**	**93,38,453**	**48,69,770**	**44,68,683**	**25,11,636**	**26.9**	**888**	**700**	3
4	895	13,54,432	7,20,985	6,33,447	3,55,485	26.2	655	519	4
5	927	29,16,476	15,33,208	13,83,268	8,79,567	30.2	1,025	787	5
6	953	12,78,185	6,60,006	6,18,179	2,95,920	23.2	1,048	851	6
7	953	22,05,057	11,34,701	10,70,356	6,05,907	27.5	769	603	7
8	944	15,84,303	8,20,870	7,63,433	3,74,757	23.7	1,044	844	8
9	**929**	**82,40,235**	**43,08,002**	**39,32,233**	**18,26,665**	**22.2**	**786**	**643**	9
10	921	8,84,157	4,61,998	4,22,159	2,82,105	31.9	851	645	10
11	921	16,38,387	8,57,756	7,80,631	5,51,764	33.7	860	643	11
12	907	20,75,506	10 84,977	9,90,529	3,73,214	18.0	526	446	12
13	948	36,42,185	19,03,271	17,38,914	6,19,582	17.0	1,005	859	13
14	**924**	**1,26,31,871**	**66,17,096**	**60,14,775**	**26,61,725**	**21.1**	**1,281**	**1,058**	14
15	926	57,84,745	30,36,051	27,48,694	12,34,161	21.3	1,103	909	15
16	902	40,72,781	21,44,237	19,28,544	10,22,964	25.1	1,768	1,413	16
17	955	27,74,345	14,36,808	13,37,537	4,04,600	14.6	1,180	1,030	17
18	**932**	**1,17,21,770**	**61,42,707**	**55,79,063**	**19,07,880**	**16.3**	**880**	**688**	18
19	930	30,59,367	15,98,472	14,60,895	4,30,222	14.1	729	639	19
20	954	37,92,200	19,66,219	18,25,981	5,96,706	15.7	1,693	1,462	20
21	973	20,71,144	10,85,149	9,85,995	3,12,001	15.1	1,285	1,117	21
22	887	25,11,785	13,39,410	11,72,375	4,71,146	18.8	1,103	929	22
23	815	2,87,274	1,53,457	1,33,817	97,805	34.0	76	56	23

[1]Several figures for 1951 have been adjusted to cover transfers of areas or villages.

TABLE I

Population by Sex and Area (by District)
1951 and 1961

(Number of persons)

	Locality	Area (sq. miles) 1961	Population[1] 1961 Both Sexes	Male	Female	
24	**WEST PAKISTAN**	**3,10,403**	**4,28,80,378**	**2,29,59,802**	**1,99,20,576**	24
25	**Peshawar Division**	**28,153**	**63,72,467**	**33,16,377**	**30,56,090**	25
26	Hazara District	6,292	13,84,552	7,00,815	6,83,737	26
27	Mardan District	1,211	8,13,840	4,22,066	3,91,774	27
28	Peshawar District	1,646	12,13,468	6,51,558	5,61,910	28
29	Kohat District	3,473	6,27,795	3,21.769	3,06,026	29
30	Malakand Agency	12,344	15,36,766	8,01,689	7,35,077	30
31	Mohmand Agency	887	2,94,215	1,54,400	1,39,815	31
32	Khyber Agency	995	3,01,319	1,63,580	1,73,739	32
33	Kurram Agency	1,305	2,00,512	1,00,500	1,00,012	33
34	**Dera Ismail Khan Division**	**11,130**	**12,05,719**	**6,38,870**	**5,66,849**	34
35	Dera Ismail Khan District	4,723	3,82,746	2,05,239	1,77,507	35
36	Bannu District	2,034	4,28,061	2,24,421	2,03,640	36
37	North Waziristan Agency	1,817	1,59,470	79,000	80,470	37
38	South Waziristan Agency	2,556	2,35,442	1,30,210	1,05,232	38
39	**Rawalpindi Division**	**11,206**	**39,79,139**	**20,58,491**	**19,20,648**	39
40	Campbellpur District	4,148	7,66,813	3,89,574	3,77,239	40
41	Rawalpindi District	2,022	11,37,085	5,90,686	5,46,399	41
42	Jhelum District	2,772	7,49,229	3,79,948	3,69,281	42
43	Gujrat District	2,264	13,26,012	6,98,283	6,27,729	43
44	**Sargodha Division**	**17,095**	**59,76,939**	**31,91,144**	**27,85,795**	44
45	Sargodha District	4,775	14,67,621	7,83,988	6,83,633	45
46	Mianwali District	5,403	7,46,733	3,93,375	3,53,358	46
47	Lyallpur District	3,516	26,83,838	14,36,345	12,47,493	47
48	Jhang District	3,401	10,78,747	5,77,436	5,01,311	48
49	**Lahore Division**	**8,907**	**64,48,575**	**34,65,757**	**29,82,818**	49
50	Lahore District	2,216	24,79,687	13,55,492	11,24,195	50
51	Gujranwala District	2,312	12,91,886	6,92,596	5,99,290	51
52	Sheikhupura District	2,312	10,80,619	5,76,587	5,04,032	52
53	Sialkot District	2,067	15,96,383	8,41,082	7,55,301	53

TABLE I

Population by Sex and Area (by District) 1951 and 1961

(Number of persons)

	1951[1]				Increase/Decrease Population 1951—1961		Persons per sq. mile		
		Population							
	Females per 1,000 males	Both Sexes	Male	Female	Number	Per cent	1961	1951	
24	**868**	**3,37,40,167**	**1,81,46,767**	**1,55,93,400**	**91,40,211**	**27.1**	**138**	**109**	24
25	**922**	**49,70,712**	**26,16,498**	**23,54,214**	**14,01,755**	**28.6**	**226**	**177**	25
26	976	12,80,563	6,74,175	6,06,388	1,03,989	8.1	220	203	26
27	928	6,29,734	3,30,485	2,99,249	1,84,106	29.2	672	519	27
28	862	9,30,082	4,99,754	2,30,328	2,83,386	30.5	737	553	28
29	951	4,32,637	2,26,957	2,05,680	1,95,158	45.1	181	125	29
30	917	11,93,354	6,16,460	5,76,894	3,43,412	28.8	124	97	30
31	906	1,29,300	73,615	55,685	1,64,915	127.1	332	146	31
32	842	2,16,622	1,05,572	1,11,050	84,697	39.1	303	218	32
33	995	1,58,420	89,480	68,940	42,092	26.6	154	125	33
34	**888**	**9,17,838**	**4,90,702**	**4,27,136**	**2,87,881**	**31.4**	**108**	**82**	34
35	865	3,23,860	1,74,035	1,49,825	58,886	18.2	81	69	35
36	907	3,29,959	1,76,649	1,53,310	98,102	29.7	210	162	36
37	1,019	1,28,235	65,850	62,385	31,235	24.4	88	71	37
38	808	1,35,784	74,168	61,616	99,658	73.4	92	53	38
39	**933**	**34,34,155**	**18,09,618**	**16,24,537**	**5,44,984**	**15.9**	**355**	**306**	39
40	968	6,89,719	3,58,710	3,31,009	77,094	11.2	185	166	40
41	925	9,07,794	4,86,689	4,21,105	2,29,291	25.3	562	449	41
42	972	6,78,900	3,49,260	3,29,640	70,329	10.4	270	245	42
43	899	11,57,742	6,14,959	5,42,783	1,68,270	14.5	586	511	43
44	**873**	**47,38,868**	**25,22,368**	**22,16,500**	**12,38,071**	**26.2**	**350**	**277**	44
45	872	11,61,387	6,20,098	5,41,289	3,06,234	26.4	307	243	45
46	898	5,49,549	2,89,424	2,60,125	1,97,184	35.9	138	102	46
47	869	21,52,401	11,41,938	10,10,463	5,31,437	24.7	763	612	47
48	868	8,75,531	4,70,908	4,04,623	2,03,216	23.2	317	257	48
49	**860**	**53,39,271**	**28,86,257**	**24,53,014**	**11,09,304**	**2.08**	**724**	**699**	49
50	829	18,95,061	10,38,878	8,56,183	5,84,626	30.9	1,119	855	50
51	865	10,46,933	5,63,821	4,83,112	2,44,953	23.4	559	493	51
52	874	9,23,081	4,94,011	4,29,070	1,57,538	17.1	467	309	52
53	898	14,74,196	7,89,547	6,84,649	1,22,187	8.3	772	713	53

TABLE I

Population by Sex and Area (by District)
1951 and 1961

(Number of persons)

	Locality	1961 Area (sq. miles) 1961	1961 Population[1] Both Sexes	Male	Female	
54	**Multan Division**	**24,826**	**66,02,924**	**35,37,760**	**30,65,164**	54
55	Dera Ghazi Khan District	9,359	7,76,620	4,17,574	3,59,046	55
56	Muzaffargarh District	5,613	9,89,878	5,30,512	4,59,366	56
57	Multan District	5,630	27,02,354	14,52,036	12,50,318	57
58	Montgomery District	4,224	21,34,072	11,37,638	9,96,434	58
59	**Bahawalpur Division**	**17,508**	**25,74,066**	**13,90,029**	**11,84,037**	59
60	Bahawalpur District	9,587	7,35,524	3,98,997	3,36,527	60
61	Bahawalnagar District	3,428	8,22,827	4,39,369	3,83,458	61
62	Rahimyarkhan District	4,493	10,15,715	5,51,663	4,64,052	62
63	**Khairpur Division**	**20,293**	**31,33,712**	**17,08,607**	**14,25,105**	63
64	Jacobabad District	2,982	5,28,700	2,91,157	2,37,552	64
65	Sukkur District	5,531	8,36,867	4,56,408	3,80,459	65
66	Larkana District	2,866	6,04,460	3,24,731	2,79,729	66
67	Nawabshah District	2,896	6,91,539	3,77,511	3,14,028	67
68	Khairpur District	6,018	4,72,137	2,58,800	2,13,337	68
69	**Hyderabad Division**	**36,821**	**32,90,956**	**18,03,011**	**14,87,945**	69
70	Hyderabad District	4,969	11,85,711	7,10,798	5,74,913	70
71	Dadu District	7,342	4,85,122	2,65,896	2,19,226	71
72	Tharparkar District	13,435	7,28,300	3,96,350	3,31,950	72
73	Sanghar District	4,142	4,30,090	2,36,856	1,93,234	73
74	Thatta District	6,933	3,61,733	1,93,111	1,68,622	74
75	**Quetta Division**	**53,115**	**6,30,118**	**3,52,819**	**2,77,299**	75
76	Quetta Pishin District	5,314	2,67,400	1,53,391	1,14,009	76
77	Sibi District	10,446	1,23,049	67,570	55,479	77
78	Loralai District	7,364	1,10,720	60,968	49,752	78
79	Zhob District	10,475	87,686	48,369	39,317	79
80	Chagai District	19,516	41,263	22,521	18,742	80
81	**Kalat Division**	**72,944**	**5,30,893**	**2,86,832**	**2,44,061**	81
82	Kalat District	30,931	3,41,420	1,86,706	1,54,714	82

TABLE I

Population by Sex and Area (by District)
1951 and 1961

(Number of persons)

		1951			Increase/Decrease Population 1951—1961		Persons per sq. mile		
		Population							
	Females per 1,000 males	Both Sexes	Male	Female	Number	Per cent	1961	1951	
54	**866**	**53,01,907**	**28,41,706**	**24,60,201**	**13,01,017**	**24.5**	**266**	**214**	54
55	860	6,27,529	3,40,069	2,87,460	1,49,091	23.8	83	67	55
56	866	7,51,249	4,03,871	3,47,378	2,38,629	31.8	176	134	56
57	861	21,07,241	11,27,883	9,79,358	5,95,113	.28.2	480	374	57
58	876	18,15,888	9,69,883	8,46,005	3,18,184	17.5	505	430	58
59	**852**	**18,22,501**	**9,89,905**	**8,32,596**	**7,51,565**	**41.2**	**147**	**104**	59
60	843	5,27,837	2,89,086	2,38,751	2,07,687	39.4	77	55	60
61	873	6,30,430	3,38,226	2,92,204	1,92,397	30.5	240	184	61
62	841	6,64,234	3,62,593	3,01,641	3,51,481	52.9	226	148	62
63	**834**	**24,68,654**	**13,56,229**	**11,12,425**	**6,65,058**	**26.9**	**154**	**122**	63
64	816	4,25,434	2,33,304	1,92,130	1,03,275	24.3	177	143	64
65	834	7,31,842	4,03,922	3,27,920	1,05,025	14.4	151	132	65
66	861	5,01,538	2,72,814	2,28,724	1,02,922	20.5	211	175	66
67	832	4,90,432	2,68,958	2,21,474	2,01,107	41.0	239	169	67
68	824	3,19,408	1,77,231	1,42,177	1,52,729	47.8	78	53	68
69	**825**	**25,25,744**	**13,88,063**	**11,37,681**	**7,65,212**	**30.3**	**89**	**69**	69
70	809	8,92,296	4,89,117	4,03,179	3,93,415	44.1	259	180	70
71	824	4,16,673	2,30,346	1,86,327	68,449	16.4	66	57	71
72	838	6,04,507	3,29,847	2,74,660	1,23,793	20.5	54	45	72
73	816	3,21,925	1,79,032	1,42,893	1,08,165	33.6	104	78	73
74	873	2,90,343	1,59,721	1,30,622	71,390	24.6	52	42	74
75	**786**	**5,14,109**	**2,90,173**	**2,23,936**	**1,16,009**	**22.6**	**12**	**10**	75
76	743	2,09,221	1,22,357	86,864	58,179	27.8	50	39	76
77	821	1,19,083	65,194	53,889	3,966	3.3	12	11	77
78	816	86,735	47,602	39,133	23,985	27.7	15	12	78
79	813	64,121	36,206	27,915	23,565	36.8	8	6	79
80	832	34,949	18,814	16,135	6,314	18.1	2	2	80
81	**851**	**4,96,713**	**2,65,833**	**2,30,880**	**34,180**	**6.9**	**7**	**7**	81
82	829	2,90,449	1,58,071	1,32,378	50,971	17.6	11	9	82

TABLE 1

Population by Sex and Area (by District) 1951 and 1961

(Number of persons)

	Locality	Area (sq. miles) 1961	1961 Population[1] Both Sexes	Male	Female	
83	Mekran District	23,460	1,46,990	77,596	69,394	83
84	Kharan District	18,553	42,483	22,530	19,953	84
85	**Karachi Division**	**8,405**	**21,34,870**	**12,10,105**	**9,24,765**	85
86	Karachi District	1,357	20,44,044	11,61,990	8,82,054	86
87	Lasbela District	7,048	90,826	48,115	42,711	87

Two boys and a fishing net in an East Pakistan village.

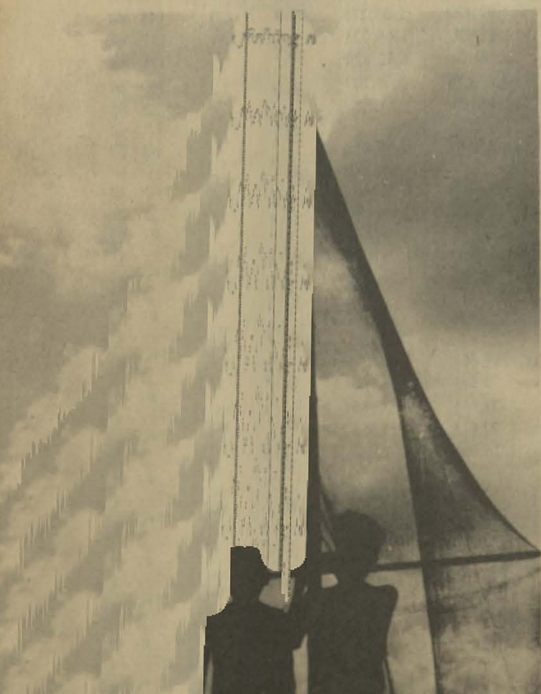


TABLE I

Population by Sex and Area (by District)
1951 and 1961

(Number of persons)

	1951				Increase/Decrease of Population 1951—1961		Persons per sq. mile		
	Females per 1,000 males	Population							
		Both Sexes	Male	Female	Number	Per cent	1961	1951	
83	894	1,51,691	78,660	73,031	(–) 4,701	33.1	6	6	83
84	886	54,573	29,102	25,471	(–)12,090	–22.2	2	3	84
85	**764**	**12,09,695**	**6,89,415**	**5,20,280**	**9,25,175**	**76.5**	**254**	**144**	85
86	759	11,33,926	6,49,629	4,84,297	9,10,118	80.0	1,506	836	86
87	888	75,769	39,786	35,983	15,057	19.9	13	11	87

TABLE II

Percentage Variation in Population by Age-Group
1951 and 1961

Age Group	Pakistan		
	1951	1961	Percentage variation
All Ages[1]	**7,29,93,118**	**9,02,82,674**	**23.69**
0—9	2,07,04,157	3,17,23,172	53.22
10—14	1,03,74,790	84,55,346	–18.50
15—19	79,23,375	74,38,928	— 6.11
20—24	59,92,428	68,96,425	15.09
25—29	53,90,229	70,42,659	33.66
30—44	1,19,91,257	1,49,44,826	24.63
45—59	69,92,672	83,94,497	20.05
60 & over	36,24,210	53,86,821	48.63
0—9+60 & over	2,43,28,367	3,71,09,993	52.54

[1]Excluding non-Pakistanis and population of Agencies, Added and Special Areas of Frontier Regions of West Pakistan. Also excluding Jammu and Kashmir, Gilgit and Baltistan, Junagadh and Manavadar and Pakistan's enclaves in India.

TABLE III

Distribution of Population by Age Groups
Pakistan and Provinces[1]
1961

Age Group	Pakistan		East Pakistan		West Pakistan	
	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
All Ages	**9,02,82,674**	**100**	**5,08,40,235**	**100**	**3,94,42,439**	**100**
Under 1 year	25,44,552	2.82	13,84,259	2.72	11,60,293	2.94
1—4	1,31,77,469	14.60	78,79,977	15.50	52,97,492	13.43
5—9	1,60,01,151	17.72	95,29,436	18.74	64,71,715	16.41
10—14	84,55,346	9.36	46,46,884	9.14	38,08,462	9.66
15—19	74,38,928	8.24	39,05,471	7.68	35,33,457	8.96
20—24	68,96,425	7.64	38,13,180	7.50	30,83,245	7.82
25—29	70,42,659	7.80	40,00,180	7.87	30,42,479	7.71
30—34	57,70,164	6.39	32,37,704	6.37	25,32,460	6.42
35—39	48,96,634	5.42	28,12,491	5.53	20,84,143	5.82
40—44	42,78,028	4.74	23,67,304	4.66	19,10,724	4.84
45—49	33,30,133	3.69	18,17,397	3.57	15,12,736	3.84
50—54	32,13,559	3.56	17,47,678	3.44	14,65,881	3.72
55—59	18,50,805	2.05	10,45,386	2.06	8,05,419	2.04
60 & over	53,86,821	5.97	26,52,888	5.22	27,33,933	6.93

Excluding non-Pakistanis and population of Agencies, Added and Special Areas of Frontier Regions of West Pakistan.

TABLE IV

Growth of Population by Decades, 1901—1961

Census Year	Population (000)	Percentage increase since last Census	Average annual rate
1901	4,55,04	—	—
1911	5,09,37	11.9	1.15
1921	5,43,63	6.7	0.65
1931	5,91,46	8.8	0.85
1941	7,02,79	18.8	1.74
1951	7,56,72	7.7	0.74
1961	9,37,21	23.9	2.17

A tea-picker at a Sylhet tea garden.



TABLE V

Population of Cities by Sex and Areas—1951 and 1961

	City	Number of persons—1961			
		Both Sexes	Male	Female	
1	**Karachi City (West Pakistan)**	**19,12,598**	**10,87,583**	**8,25,015**	1
	Municipal Corporation and Port Trust Areas.	14,47,419	8,13,918	6,33,501	
	Cantonment Area (Civil)	96,290	56,016	40,274	
	Other Cantonment Areas	68,013	45,386	22,627	
	Karachi Taluka (Urban)	3,00,876	1,72,263	1,28,613	
2	**Lahore City (West Pakistan)**	**12,96,477**	**7,23,199**	**5,73,278**	2
	Municipal Corporation	12,27,996	6,79,760	5,48,236	
	Cantonment	68,481	43,439	25,042	
3	**Dacca City (East Pakistan)**	**5,56,712**	**3,33,907**	**2,22,805**	3
	Municipality	3,62,006	2,13,356	1,48,650	
	Urban Areas	1,88,137	1,15,761	72,376	
	Cantonment	6,569	4,790	1,779	
4	**Hyderabad City (West Pakistan)**	**4,34,537**	**2,43,523**	**1,91,014**	4
	Municipality	4,16,441	2,33,127	1,83,314	
	Cantonment	18,096	10,396	7,700	
5	**Lyallpur City Municipality (West Pakistan)**	**4,25,248**	**2,39,267**	**1,85,981**	5
6	**Chittagong City (East Pakistan)**	**3,64,205**	**2,37,752**	**1,26,453**	6
	Chittagong Municipality	1,74,384	1,21,675	52,709	
	Chittagong Cantonment	1,983	1,487	496	
	Urban Areas	1,87,838	1,14,590	73,248	
7	**Multan City (West Pakistan)**	**3,58,201**	**1,99,284**	**1,58,917**	7
	Municipality	3,40,399	1,88,390	1,52,009	
	Cantonment	17,802	10,894	6,908	
8	**Rawalpindi City (West Pakistan)**	**3,40,175**	**1,95,467**	**1,44,708**	8
	Municipality	1,97,370	1,08,661	88,709	
	Cantonment	1,42,805	86,806	55,999	

TABLE V

Population of Cities by Sex and Areas—1951 and 1961

	Number of persons—1951			Area (sq. miles)	Persons per sq. mile		Females per 1,000 Males		
	Both Sexes	Male	Female		1961	1951	1961	1951	
1	**10,68,459**	**6,14,524**	**4,53,935**	**230**	**8,316**	**4,645**	**759**	**739**	1
	9,05,781	5,13,764	3,92,017	..	..	..	778	763	
	1,03,657	58,471	45,186	..	..	..	719	773	
	59,021	42,289	16,732	..	..	..	499	396	
	—	—	—	..	..	..	747	—	
2	**8,49,476**	**4,78,581**	**3,70,895**	**128**	**10,129**	**6,637**	**793**	**775**	2
	7,89,400	4,38,802	3,50,598	..	..	..	807	799	
	60,076	39,779	20,297	..	..	..	576	510	
3	**3,35,928**	**2.06,041**	**1,29,887**	**35**	**15,789**	**9,527**	**667**	**630**	3
	2,73,459	1,69,762	1,03,697	8	—	—	697	610	
	62,469	36,279	26,190	20	—	—	625	721	
		..	..	7	—	—	371	—	
4	**2,41,801**	**1,32,463**	**1,09,338**	**18**	**24,141**	**13,433**	**784**	**825**	4
	2,29,412	1,25,012	1,04,400	..	..	..	786	835	
	12,389	7,451	4,938	..	..	..	741	662	
5	**1,79,144**	**99,093**	**80,051**	**11**	**38,659**	**16,286**	**777**	**808**	5
6	**2,89,981**	**1,86,135**	**1,03,846**	**53**	**6,805**	**5,418**	**532**	**557**	6
	1,43,264	1,03,719	39,545	5	—	—	433	381	
	..	..	..	..	..	..	333	..	
	1,46,717	82,416	64,301	48	—	—	639	780	
7	**1,90,122**	**1,04,478**	**85,644**	**13**	**27,554**	**14,625**	**632**	**820**	7
	1,75,429	94,989	80,440	..	..	..	807	847	
	14,693	9,489	5,204	..	..	..	634	548	
8	**2,37,219**	**1,44,273**	**92,946**	**18**	**18,899**	**13,179**	**740**	**644**	8
	1,53,070	87,430	65,640	..	..	..	816	751	
	84,149	56,843	27,306	..	..	..	645	480	

TABLE V

Population of Cities by Sex and Areas—1951 and 1961

	City	Number of Persons—1961			
		Both Sexes	Male	Female	
9	**Peshawar City (West Pakistan)**	**2,18,691**	**1,26,020**	**92,671**	9
	Municipality	1,66,273	90,852	75,421	
	Cantonment	46,925	30,918	16,007	
	Nishat Mills Area	806	652	154	
	University Town	4,687	3,598	1,098	
10	**Gujranwala City (Municipality) (West Pakistan)**	**1,96,154**	**1,06,404**	**89,750**	10
11	**Sialkot City (West Pakistan)**	**1,64,346**	**88,808**	**75,538**	11
	Municipality	1,43,889	75,993	67,896	
	Cantonment	20,457	12,815	7,642	
12	**Narayanganj City (East Pakistan)**	**1,62,054**	**1,01,774**	**60,280**	12
	Municipality	1,25,792	74,909	50,883	
	Industrial Area	36,262	26,865	9,397	
13	**Sargodha City (West Pakistan)**	**1,29,291**	**72,971**	**56,320**	13
	Municipality	83,141	45,735	37,406	
	Cantonment	46,150	27,236	18,914	
14	**Khulna City (East Pakistan)**	**1,27,970**	**81,908**	**46,062**	14
	Municipality	80,917	47,418	33,499	
	Industrial Area	47,053	34,490	125,63	
15	**Quetta City (West Pakistan)**	**1,06,633**	**64,973**	**41,660**	15
	Municipality	79,493	45,389	34,104	
	Cantonment	27,140	19,584	7,556	
16	**Sukkur City (Municipality) (West Pakistan)**	**1,03,216**	**56,313**	**46,903**	16

TABLE V

Population of Cities by Sex and Areas—1951 and 1961

	Number of persons—1951			Area (sq. miles)	Persons per sq. mile		Females per 1,000 Males		
	Both Sexes	Male	Female		1961	1951	1961	1951	
9	**1,51,776**	**89,458**	**62,318**	**9**	**24,299**	**16,864**	**735**	**697**	9
	1,09,715	61,065	48,650	..	..	..	830	797	
	42,061	28,393	13,668	..	..	..	518	481	
	..	..	..	..	..	..	236	..	
	..	..	..	..	..	..	303	..	
10	**1,20,860**	**65,123**	**55,737**	**4**	**45,617**	**28,105**	**843**	**856**	10
11	**1,67,543**	**94,999**	**72,544**	**14**	**11,739**	**11,967**	**851**	**764**	11
	1,35,401	71,163	64,238	..	..	..	893	903	
	32,142	23,836	8,306	..	..	..	596	348	
12	**68,373**	**44,135**	**24,238**	**10**	**16,621**	**7,013**	**592**	**549**	12
	68,373	44,135	24,238	8	—	—	679	549	
	—	—	—	2	—	—	350	—	
13	**78,463**	**43,401**	**35,062**	**7**	**18,470**	**11,209**	**772**	**808**	13
	78,463	43,401	35,062	..	..	..	818	808	
	—	—	—	..	..	..	694	—	
14	**41,409**	**25,541**	**15,868**	**14**	**8,949**	**2,896**	**562**	**621**	14
	41,409	25,541	15,868	7	—	—	706	621	
	—	—	—	7	—	—	364	—	
15	**84,343**	**55,321**	**29,022**	**17**	**6,273**	**4,961**	**641**	**525**	15
	56,249	33,203	23,046	..	..	..	751	694	
	28,094	22,118	5,976	..	..	..	386	270	
16	**77,057**	**43,498**	**33,559**	**4**	**27,896**	**20,826**	**833**	**722**	16

TABLE VI

Percentage Distribution by Religious Groups—1961

Religious Groups	Pakistan	East Pakistan	West Pakistan
	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent
All Religions	**100**	**100**	**100**
Muslims	88.09	80.43	97.17
Caste Hindus	4.90	8.63	0.48
Scheduled Caste	5.77	9.82	0.97
Christians	0.78	0.29	1.36
Buddhists	0.40	0.74	0.01
Others	0.06	0.09	0.01

TABLE VII

Mother Tongue[1]—1961

Language[2]	Number of persons			Per cent total population		
	Pakistan	East Pakistan	West Pakistan	Pakistan	East	West
Total Population	**9,02,82,674**	**5,08,40,235**	**3,94,42,439**	**100**	**100**	**100**
Bengali	5,00,85,669	5,00,39,988	45,681	55.48	98.42	0.12
Panjabi	2,61,96,263	9,677	2,61,86,586	29.02	0.02	66.39
Pashto	33,43,363	3,507	33,39,856	3.70	0.01	8.47
Sindhi	49,70,219	6,223	49,63,996	5.51	0.01	12.59
Urdu	32,98,454	3,10,628	29,87,826	3.65	0.61	7.57
Baluchi	9,82,648	136	9,82,512	1.09	—	2.49
Brahui	3,65,772	215	3,65,557	0.41	—	0.93
Persian	28,082	1,704	26,378	0.03	—	0.07
Arabic	3,398	64	3,334	—	—	0.01
English	20,343	2,812	17,531	0.02	0.01	.04
Other Languages	9,88,463	4,65,281	5,23,182	1.09	0.92	1.32

[1]In the statistical enumeration persons were allowed to give only one language as their mother tongue, even if they spoke another quite or nearly as fluently.

[2]Main languages, including variants, e.g. under Panjabi: Multani, Lahanda, Bahawalpuri, Derawali, Jafirki, Khetrani, Dogra, Pahari.

TABLE VIII

Number and Percentage of Literates by Sex Pakistan and Provinces—1961

Locality	Number of literates			Per cent of total population		
	Both Sexes	Male	Female	Both Sexes	Male	Female
PAKISTAN	**1,43,35,809**	**1,11,06,646**	**32,29,163**	**15.9**	**23.4**	**7.6**
East Pakistan	89,55,50i	68,46,060	21,09,441	17.6	26.0	8.6
West Pakistan	53,80,308	42,60,586	11,19,722	13.6	20.1	6.1

TABLE IX

Literacy in Specified Age Groups of 5 and Over Pakistan and Provinces—1961

Age group	Sex	Number of literates			Per cent of population aged.5 and over		
		Pakistan	East Pakistan	West Pakistan	Pakistan	East Pakistan	West Pakistan
All Ages—(5 & over)	**T**	**1,43,35,809**	**89,55,501**	**53,80,308**	**19.2**	**21.5**	**16.3**
	M	**1,11,06,646**	**68,46,060**	**42,60,586**	**28.0**	**31.5**	**23.9**
	F	**32,29,163**	**21,09,441**	**11,19,722**	**9.3**	**10.7**	**7.4**
5—9	T	17,07,568	12,06,126	5,01,442	10.7	12.7	7.8
	M	11,59,141	7,82,211	3,76,930	13.9	16.1	10.9
	F	5,48,427	4,23,915	1,24,512	7.1	9.1	4.1
10—14	T	25,96,699	15,24,798	10,71,901	30.7	32.8	28.2
	M	18,69,045	10,56,625	8,12,420	39.7	40.5	38.7
	F	7,27,654	4,68,173	2,59,481	19.4	23.0	15.2
15—19	T	20,30,236	10,81,072	9,49,164	27.3	27.7	26.9
	M	15,01,078	7,65,269	7,35,809	39.1	39.8	38.4
	F	5,29,158	3,15,803	2,13,355	14.7	15.9	13.2
20—24	T	16,86,756	9,66,891	7,19,865	24.5	25.4	23.4
	M	12,84,184	7,13,308	5,70,876	37.1	39.1	34.9
	F	4,02,572	2,53,583	1,48,989	11.7	12.8	10.3
25 and over	T	63,14,550	41,76,614	21,37,936	17.7	21.2	13.3
	M	52,93,198	35,28,647	17,64,551	27.4	33.5	20.1
	F	10,21,352	6,47,967	3,73,385	6.2	7.1	5.1

TABLE X

Numerical Distribution of Literates by Educational Levels, 1961

Educational Levels	Number of persons					
	Pakistan		East Pakistan		West Pakistan	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Total literates	**1,11,06,646**	**32,29,163**	**68,46,060**	**21,09,441**	**42,60,586**	**11,19,722**
Without formal attainments	14,34,892	5,90,279	10,85,198	3,65,717	3,49,694	2,24,562
Below Primary School (Grades I to IV)	49,65,167	18,04,549	35,49,491	14,08,841	14,15,676	3,95,708
Primary, Middle and Secondary School (Grades V to IX)	38,04,071	7,35,361	18,90,710	3,18,658	19,13,361	4,16,703
Matriculation	6,60,000	68,986	2,35,458	11,717	4,24,542	57,269
Intermediate	1,36,710	18,452	49,818	2,974	86,892	15,478
Degree	73,838	8,231	26,893	1,176	46,945	7,055
Higher Degree	28,387	3,083	6,812	334	21,575	2,749
Oriental	3,581	222	1,680	24	1,901	198

TABLE XI

Labour Force—1961

	Pakistan	East Pakistan	West Pakistan
Population	90,282,674	50,840,235	39,442,439
Agricultural Labour Force	22,441,788	14,872,004	7,569,784
Non-Agricultural Civilian Labour Force	7,764,193	2,570,953	5,193,240
Total Civilian Labour Force	30,205,981	17,442,957	12,763,024
Self-supporting but not in Civilian Labour Force[1]	28,353,521	14,603,606	13,749,915
Agricultural Labour Force as percentage of Civilian Labour Force	74.3	85.3	59.3
Civilian Labour Force as percentage of total population	33.5	34.3	32.4

[1]Of whom over 72 per cent are women doing only household work.

A Sindhi guardian of a historical monument.



TABLE XII
POPULATION PROJECTIONS

A. Some Population Parameters of Projected Population under Three Separate Fertility Assumptions, East Pakistan July 1, 1960—July 1, 2000

Population parameter and fertility assumption	July 1								
	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980	1985	1990	1995	2000
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
					per thousand				
Birth rates[1]									
Assumption I	49.51	50.49	52.99	54.09	53.80	53.45	53.58	54.07	–
Assumption II	49.51	50.49	48.26	45.24	41.41	42.78	43.12	42.62	–
Assumption III	49.51	44.79	41.90	37.99	32.42	33.67	33.75	32.84	–
Death rates[1]									
Assumption I	18.01	14.41	11.73	9.44	7.76	7.58	7.37	7.20	–
Assumption II	18.01	14.41	11.50	9.19	8.39	7.66	7.64	7.58	–
Assumption III	18.01	13.98	11.11	9.03	7.59	7.78	7.91	7.99	–
					per cent				
Rates of Growth[2]									
Assumption I	3.15	3.61	4.13	4.46	4.60	4.59	4.62	4.69	–
Assumption II	3.15	3.61	3.68	3.60	3.30	3.51	3.55	3.50	–
Assumption III	3.15	3.08	3.08	2.90	2.48	2.59	2.58	2.48	–
Masculinity ratio					males per 100 females				
Assumption I	105.5	105.8	105.6	105.2	104.8	104.5	104.2	104.1	104.0
Assumption II	105.5	105.8	105.6	105.3	104.9	104.4	104.1	103.9	103.8
Assumption III	105.5	105.8	105.7	105.3	104.9	104.4	104.4	103.7	103.5

Source : Pakistan Institute of Development Economics: *Population Projections for Pakistan. Monographs in the Economics of Development, No. 17.*

1. Yearly averages for five years beginning with the date in each column.
2. Compound yearly rates of growth of population per 100 persons in five years beginning with the date in each column.

TABLE XII

POPULATION PROJECTIONS

B. Some Population Parameters of Projected Population under Three Separate Fertility Assumptions, West Pakistan July 1, 1960—July 1, 2000

Population parameter and fertility assumption	July 1								
	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980	1985	1990	1995	2000
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
Birth rates[1]					per thousand				
Assumption I	48.43	47.15	47.57	48.48	48.91	48.91	48.97	49.34	—
Assumption II	48.43	47.15	43.26	40.35	37.32	38.97	39.69	39.49	—
Assumption III	48.43	41.78	37.43	33.68	29.23	30.85	31.27	30.67	—
Death rates									
Assumption I	17.81	14.72	12.31	10.35	9.06	8.80	8.62	8.44	—
Assumption II	17.81	14.72	12.02	9.94	8.71	8.65	8.66	8.61	—
Assumption III	17.81	14.22	11.52	9.63	8.53	8.61	8.80	8.80	8.86
Rates of growth[2]					per cent				
Assumption I	3.06	3.24	3.53	3.81	3.98	4.01	4.04	4.09	—
Assumption II	3.06	3.24	3.12	3.04	2.86	3.03	3.10	3.09	—
Assumption III	3.06	2.76	2.59	2.40	2.07	2.22	2.25	2.18	—
Masculinity ratio					males per 100 females				
Assumption I	108.2	108.3	108.0	107.4	106.7	106.0	105.6	105.3	105.1
Assumption II	108.2	108.3	108.0	107.4	106.7	106.1	105.6	105.3	105.0
Assumption III	108.2	108.3	108.1	107.5	106.8	106.2	105.6	105.2	104.9

1. Yearly averages for five years beginning with the date in each column.
2. Compound yearly rates of growth of population per 100 persons in five year beginning with the date in each column.

TABLE XII

POPULATION PROJECTIONS

C. Projected Population of All Pakistan by Sex Under Three Separate Assumptions, July 1, 1960—July 1, 2000

(numbers are in 000's)

Fertility assumption	Mid-year population								
	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980	1985	1990	1995	2000
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
Both sexes									
Assumption I	97,720	113,948	134,939	163,027	200,009	247,254	305,767	378,718	470,546
Assumption II	97,720	113,948	134,939	159,696	188,328	219,903	258,704	305,141	359,413
Assumption III	97,720	113,667	131,667	151,582	172,984	193,810	218,515	246,471	276,874
Males									
Assumption I	50,455	58,881	69,652	83,963	102,746	126,728	156,476	193,618	240,421
Assumption II	50,455	58,881	69,652	82,261	96,764	112,714	132,359	155,915	183,4787
Assumption III	50,455	58,881	67,981	78,107	88,906	99,346	111,770	125,858	141,194
Females									
Assumption I	47,265	55,067	65,287	79,064	97,263	120,525	149,291	185,100	230,125
Assumption II	47,265	55,067	65,287	77,437	91,564	107,189	126,345	149,226	175,935
Assumption III	47,265	55,067	63,686	73,475	84,078	94,464	106,745	120,613	135,676

TABLE XII

POPULATION PROJECTIONS

D. Projected Population of East Pakistan by Sex Under Three Separate Assumptions, July 1, 1960– July 1, 2000

(*numbers are in 000's*)

Fertility assumption	Mid-year population								
	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980	1985	1990	1995	2000
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
Both sexes									
Assumption I	52,621	61,450	73,360	89,799	111,718	139,912	175,097	219,466	275,946
Assumption II	52,621	61,450	73,360	87,877	104,899	123,833	147,160	175,192	208,121
Assumption III	52,621	61,450	71,522	83,231	96,007	108,526	123,317	140,088	158,377
Males									
Assumption I	27,016	31,858	37,680	46,048	57,179	71,482	89,360	111,934	140,698
Assumption II	27,016	31,585	37,680	45,067	53,692	63,254	75,061	89,273	105,985
Assumption III	27,016	31,585	36,744	42,696	49,149	55,426	62,865	71,315	80,539
Females									
Assumption I	25,605	29,865	35,680	43,751	54,539	68,430	85,737	107,532	135,248
Assumption II	25,605	29,865	35,680	42,810	51,207	60,579	72,099	85,919	102,136
Assumption III	25,605	29,865	34,778	40,535	46,858	53,100	60,452	68,773	778,38

TABLE XII

POPULATION PROJECTIONS

E. Projected Population of West Pakistan by Sex Under Three Separate Assumptions, July 1, 1960—July 1, 2000

(*numbers are in 000's*)

Fertility assumption	Mid-year population								
	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980	1985	1990	1995	2000
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
Both sexes									
Assumption I	45,099	52,498	61,579	73,228	88,291	107,342	130,670	159,252	194,600
Assumption II	45,099	52,498	61,579	71,821	83,429	96,070	111,544	129,949	151,292
Assumption III	45,099	52,498	60,145	68,351	76,977	85,284	95,198	106,383	118,497
Males									
Assumption I	23,439	27,296	31,927	37,915	45,567	55,246	67,116	81,684	99,723
Assumption II	23,439	27,296	31,972	37,194	43,072	49,460	57,298	66,642	77,493
Assumption III	23,439	27,296	31,237	35,411	39,757	43,920	48,905	54,543	60,658
Females									
Assumption I	21,660	25,202	29,607	35,313	42,724	52,096	63,554	77,568	94,877
Assumption II	21,660	25,202	29,607	34,627	40,357	46,610	54,246	63,307	73,799
Assumption III	21,660	25,202	28,908	32,940	37,220	41,364	46,293	51,840	57,839

TABLE XII

POPULATION PROJECTIONS

F. Projected Population of All-Pakistan in Five-Year Age Groups, July 1, 1960—July 1, 2000

Fertility Assumption III *(numbers are in 000's)*

Age	Mid-year population								
	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980	1985	1990	1995	2000
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
All ages	97,720	113,948	131,667	151,582	172,984	193,810	218,515	246,471	276,874
0—3	19,578	21,536	22,899	24,960	26,424	26,072	30,638	34,801	38,348
5—9	15,330	17,992	20,213	21,879	24,163	25,807	25,462	29,923	33,987
10—14	10,855	15,051	17,734	20,000	21,708	24,020	25,653	25,311	29,743
15—19	7,670	10,696	14,877	17,570	19,849	21,570	23,867	25,491	25,150
20—24	6,867	7,497	10,525	14,680	17,378	19,664	21,368	23,642	25,251
25—29	7,057	6,691	7,353	10,357	14,487	17,181	19,438	21,126	23,373
30—34	6,055	6,848	6,541	7,220	10,203	14,300	16,961	19,191	20,856
35—39	5,177	5,865	6,670	6,402	7,095	10,050	14,086	16,705	18,903
40—44	4,400	4,990	5,681	6,497	6,262	6,959	9,857	13,817	16,388
45—49	3,800	4,208	4,796	5,491	6,309	6,102	6,782	9,602	13,460
50—54	3,024	3,590	4,003	4,586	5,272	6,072	5,875	6,531	9,244
55—59	2,611	2,784	3,331	3,742	4,314	4,980	5,736	5,553	6,175
60—64	2,001	2,296	2,487	3,012	3,411	3,956	4,567	5,261	5,096
65—69	1,475	1,665	1,945	2,135	2,612	2,975	3,453	3,985	4,590
70—74	829	1,127	1,293	1,535	1,699	2,092	2,384	2,764	3,191
75—79	651	571	782	892	1,063	1,176	1,448	1,649	1,915
80—84	240	385	332	446	500	583	646	797	906
85+	129	157	207	177	235	249	291	321	397



Wazir Khan Mosque, Lahore (1634).

Historical Background

PAKISTAN is old and new at the same time. Although it came into being on August 14, 1947, it has its roots in the remote past. Its establishment was the culmination of the struggle by the Muslims of the Indo-Pakistan Subcontinent for a separate homeland of their own, and it may be said that its foundation was laid when Muhammad Bin Qasim subdued Sind in 711 A.D. as a reprisal against Sindhi pirates.

The potential existence of Pakistan from the time of the advent of Islam in the Indo-Pakistan Subcontinent is best explained in the words of two eminent Hindu scholars. K.M. Panikkar, a well-known Indian writer, has expressed the point with some emphasis. "Islam", says Panikkar, "split Indian society into two sections from top to bottom, and what has come to be known in the phraseology of today as two separate nations came into being from the beginning. Two parallel societies were established on the same soil. At all steps they are different and hardly any social communication or intermingling of life existed between them."[1] Similarly, R.C. Mazumdar, a distinguished Hindu historian of India, has made a pertinent observation on Islam's impact on the social and religious life of the Subcontinent. "The followers of Islam", writes R.C. Mazumdar, "settled in large numbers, but they did not merge themselves into the Hindu pattern. So, for the first time in Indian history, two distinct but important communities and cultures stood face to face, and India was permanently divided into two powerful units."[2]

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[1]K. M. Panikkar: *A Survey of Indian History*, Asia Publishing House, London, 1964, p. 135.

[2]R.C. Mazumdar: *Glimpses of Bengal in the Nineteenth Century*, Calcutta, 1960, p. 101.

It is interesting to observe, however, that areas constituting Pakistan have had a historical individuality of their own even before the advent of Islam. Some of the earliest relics of Stone-Age man in the Subcontinent are found in the Soan Valley of the Potwar region near Rawalpindi, with a probable antiquity of about 500,000 years. No human skeleton of such antiquity has yet been discovered in the area, but the crude stone implements recovered from the terraces of the Soan carry the saga of human toil and labour in this part of the world to the interglacial period. These Stone-Age men fashioned their implements in a sufficiently homogeneous way to justify their grouping in terms of a culture—called the Soan Culture.

About 6,000 years ago, amidst the rugged windswept valleys and foothills of Baluchistan, small village communities developed and began to take the first hesitant steps towards civilization. Here we find a more continuous story of human activity, though still in the Stone Age. We find these prehistoric villagers established both as herdsmen and as farmers, settled in villages in the valleys or on the outskirts of the plains, where they tended their cattle and cultivated barley and other crops.

Careful excavation of the prehistoric mounds in these areas and the classification of their contents, layer by layer, have grouped them into two main categories of Red-Ware Culture and Buff-Ware Culture. The former is popularly known as the Zhob Culture of North Baluchistan, while the latter comprises the Quetta, Amri, Nal and Kulli cultures of Sind and South Baluchistan.

Some Amri-Nal villages or towns had stone walls and bastions for defence purposes, and their houses had stone foundations. At Nal, an extensive cemetery of this culture consists of about 100 graves. An important feature of this composite culture is that at Amri and certain other sites it has been found below the quite distinctive Indus Valley Culture. On the other hand, the steatite seal of Nal and the copper implements and certain types of pot-decoration suggest a partial overlap between the two. It probably represents one of the local societies which constituted the environment for the growth of the Indus Valley Civilization.

The prehistoric site of Kot Diji in the Khairpur Division of West Pakistan has furnished information of high significance for the reconstruction of a connected story which pushes back the prehistory of Pakistan by at least another 300 years, from about 2500 B.C. to 2800 B.C. Evidence of a new cultural element of pre-Harappan date has been traced here.

Similarly, the discovery of Sarai Khola, a pre-historic settlement in the vicinity of Taxila, has pushed back the history of Taxila by nearly 2,400 years from 600 B.C. to 3,000 B.C. Here excavations show three culture sequences: historic at the top, Kot Dijian in the middle, and late Neolithic at the bottom.

When the primitive village communities in the Baluchistan area were still struggling against a difficult highland environment and a highly cultured people were trying to assert themselves at Kot Diji and Sarai Khola, one of the most well-developed urban civilizations of the ancient world flourished

between the years 2500 and 1500 B.C. in the Indus Valley sites of Mohenjo-daro and Harappa. These Indus Valley people possessed a high standard of art and craftsmanship and a well-developed system of quasi-pictographic writing, which despite continuing effort, remains undeciphered. The imposing ruins of the beautifully planned Mohenjodaro and Harappa towns present clear evidence of the unity of a people living the same mode of life and using the same kind of tools. Indeed, the brick buildings of the common people, the public baths, the roads and the covered drainage system suggest the picture of a people living happily in a Welfare State.

In or about 1500 B.C., several Aryan tribes descended upon the Panjab and settled in the Sapta Sindhava, which signifies the Indus plain. They developed pastoral societies that grew into the Rigvedic Civilization. The *Rig-veda* is replete with hymns praising the region of the Indus, which they describe as 'God-fashioned'. It is also clear that so long as the Sapta Sindhava remained the core of the Aryan Civilization, the social divisions of the Aryans remained free from the subsequent rigidity of the caste system. The caste institution and the ritual of complex sacrifices took shape in the Gangetic valley. Over and above a multiplicity of deities described in the *Rig-veda*, we sometimes find a reference to a Supreme Being as in the sentence: *Ekam hi sat viprah bahudha vadanti* (There is only One Truth and the Brahmins remember him in various ways). This was later developed into the concept of Prajapati (Lord of Creation) and Brahma, the indestructable and indescribable.

The discovery of the Grave Culture of Dir and Swat should in time throw more light on the shadowy period of Pakistan's cultural history between the end of the Indus Culture in 1500 B.C. and the beginning of the historic period under the Achaemenians in the sixth century B.C. Hindu mythology and Sanskrit literary tradition seem to attribute the destruction of the Indus Civilization to the Aryans, but what really happened remains a mystery which may never be quite solved. There is little doubt though that in the contacts and conflicts between the two, the Aryans must have been influenced by the highly developed culture of the Indus Civilization.

Investigation of the Grave Culture has opened up two periods in the cultural heritage of Pakistan: one of the Bronze Age and another of the Iron Age. Its name is based on the fact that it presents a peculiar pattern of living in hilly zones of the Gandhara region as evidenced in the graves. This Culture is fundamentally different from the Indus Culture and has little relation with the village culture of Baluchistan.

Stratigraphy as well as the artefacts recovered from this area suggest that the Aryans moved into this part of the world between 1500 and 600 B.C. This is also supported by the finding that the skeletons discovered in the graves are of proto-Europoid and Mediterranean anthropological types and quite distinct from those buried in the Harappa cemetries.

In the sixth century B.C., the Buddha began his teaching, which later swept the Subcontinent from the Khyber Pass to the forests of Chittagong. It was towards the end of this century, too, that Darius I of Persia organized Sind and the Panjab as the twentieth satrapy of his Empire. There are remark-

able similarities between the organizations of that great Empire and the Maurya Empire of the third century B.C., while Kautilia's *Arthasastra* also shows a strong Persian influence. Alexander of Macedon, after defeating Darius III at Guagamela (or Arbela) in 331 B.C., had also marched through the Subcontinent up to the river Beas, but Greek influence on the region appears to have been limited to contributing indirectly to the establishment of the Maurya Empire.

The great empire that Ashoka, the grandson of Chandragupta Maurya, built in the Subcontinent included autonomous tribal territories of much of what is now West Pakistan and North Bengal, including the Bogra District. This vast empire gradually disintegrated under the onslaught of local Kings and the Bactrian Greeks, who, between 205 B.C. and 167 B.C., conquerred Gandhara, the Panjab and the Indus Valley as well as nearly all of the Gangetic Valley and Saurashtra. Then towards the end of the last century B.C., the Subcontinent was invaded by Scythians and Parthians, who conquerred Taxila, kept the Greek system of Government and favoured Buddhism and the construction of Buddhist monuments. In the first century A.D., the Kushans, who had settled in Bactria and been influenced by Hellenism, conquerred the northern and north-western region of the Subcontinent. Under Kanishka, a great Buddhist King, the Kushan Empire covered almost the whole of West Pakistan, the Gangetic Valley and the western half of East Pakistan. In the third century A.D., the Kushan Empire broke up under the onslaught of the Sassanian Emperor, Shapur I; but the Kidara Kushans and Sassanians both continued to rule in different parts of West Pakistan until they were swept away by the White Huns when they invaded this part of the country in the fifth century A.D.

So, during the space of one thousand years, from the time of the Persian conquest to the invasion of the Huns (600 B.C. to the fifth century A.D.), the Gandhara region prospered under various foreign rulers, who all left their impact on the continuing Buddhist cultural tradition in this region, extending from Taxila on the east, through Peshawar and the adjacent hilly regions of Swat, to Jalalabad on the west. Gandhara art, one of the most prized treasures of Pakistan, reached its zenith during the reign of Kanishka, who probably founded Peshawar as his capital, and brought great prosperity to the region with the development of the Silk Route to China. Gandhara art represents different phases of the cultural and religious life of the region, which in its artistic manifestation is distinct from the Indian classical school. It was largely the product of the influence of, first, Hellenic and, later, Graeco-Roman sculpture on local Buddhist traditions.

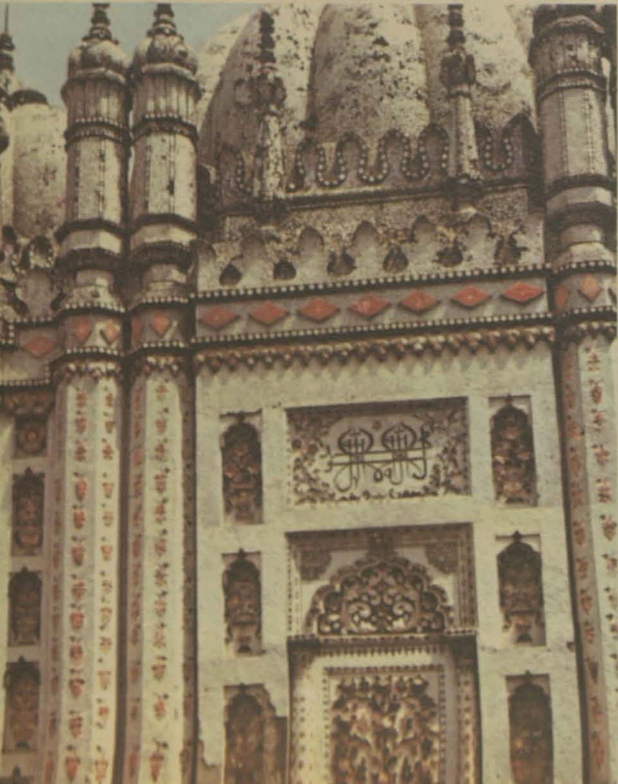
The early history of East Pakistan is too shadowy to admit of a connected record. The historical value of the myths and legends embodied in ancient epic literature cannot be regarded as substantial.

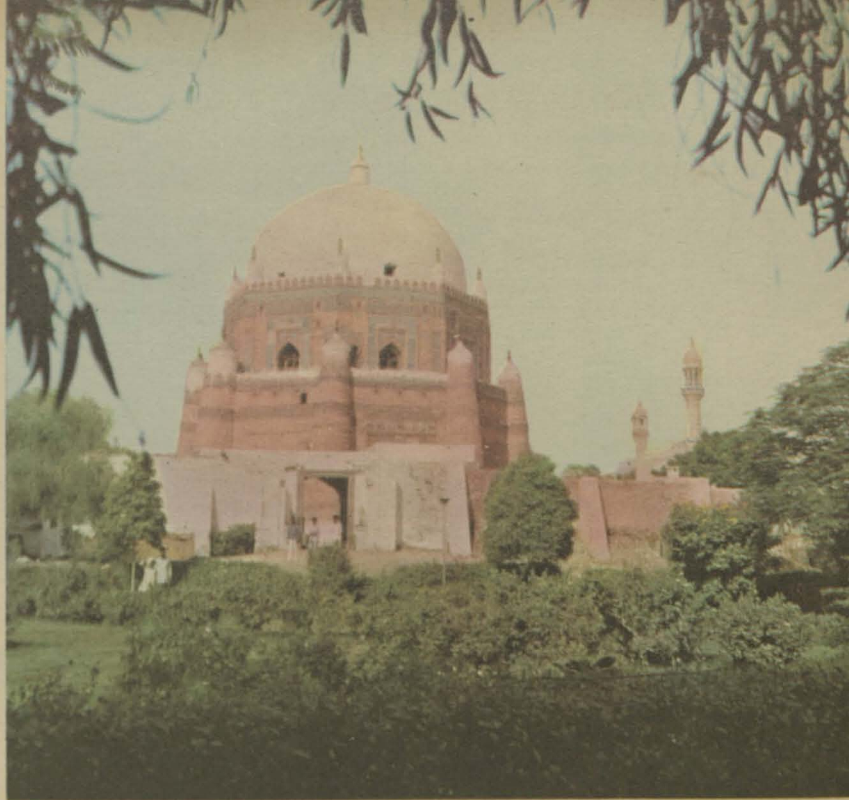
The historians of Alexander refer to a people in the East as Gangaridal, who appear to be settled around the lower Ganges. That Pundravardhana was the chief city of Bengal during Maurya rule is proved by the Brahmi script discovered from Mahasthan in 1931. The inscription, bearing six lines of Ashokan Brahmi, contains an imperial order to distribute food-



Bibi Pari's Tomb, Dacca (c. 1685).

Interior of an old mosque in Dacca.





Shah Rukn-i-Alam's Tomb, Multan (1320-24).

grains from the Government storehouse to the famine-affected people of the area. A large number of punch-marked copper coins have also been discovered from Mahasthan. The archaeological evidence shows that the city flourished from the fourth to the second century B.C. The Chinese pilgrim, Yuan Chwang, visited the city some time during 639-645 A.D., and noticed a large stupa near the city which was said to have been built by Ashoka himself over the relics of the Buddha. From numismatic evidence, it appears that Kushan rule was also extended to these regions, although corroborating testimony is still lacking.

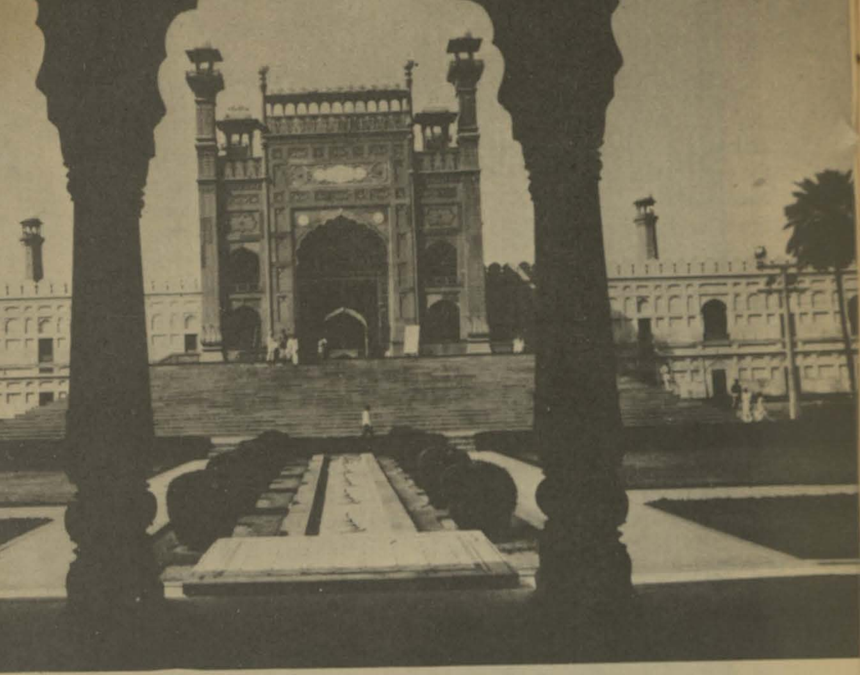
With the establishment of the Gupta Empire in the fourth century A.D., the northern part of Bengal came under their control. But the kingdom of Samatata, which is identified with the eastern part of East Pakistan, retained its autonomy in internal administration.

The foundation of the Pala dynasty, about the middle of the eighth century A.D., marks a new epoch in the history of East Pakistan. The history of the Gupta and Pala dynasties, which extends over four centuries, is highly interesting from the political as well as cultural point of view. During this period, the area enjoyed a degree of prosperity and stable government unknown in its early annals. From literary sources, we learn that the homeland of the Palas was Barendri. They professed Buddhism and established many famous monasteries and stupas. One of the viharas founded by them has been excavated at Paharpur in the Rajshahi District. Their empire reached its zenith during the rule of Devapala (810-850 A.D.), who extended his frontiers to Assam and Kalinga (Orissa), and exacted tribute from a major part of Northern India.

During the latter half of the ninth century, the eastern part of Bengal fell into the hands of local dynasties, notably the Chandras. Recently conducted excavations at Mainamati have brought up material evidence of this dynasty. In about 1050 we find the Chandras replaced by a Brahmin dynasty of Vermans, who were in turn swept away by the Senas, who hailed from Karnat in South India, towards the end of the eleventh century. The last major ruler of this dynasty, Lakshmanasena, played an important part in North Indian politics; but despite his military prowess, he was unable to muster any serious resistance when he faced the Muslim forces under Muhammad bin Bakhtiyar Khalji. Lakshmanasena took refuge in East Bengal, and his successors continued Sena rule here until 1245, when Muslim rule came to encompass the whole of Bengal.

It would thus appear that the historical process, as it evolved in the pre-Islamic era, in the regions forming East and West Pakistan gave them certain distinctive qualities, side by side with some overlap of territories and widespread contacts.

The Muslim contact with Bengal goes back to the early centuries of the Hijra. The Arab geographers speak frequently of Bengal in connection with trade and commerce. The existence of commercial contacts between the traders of Bengal and Arabia in the Abbasid period is substantiated by the discovery of Abbasid coins at Paharpur and Mainamati. Islam spread in this area largely as a result of the personal example and missionary



Badshahi Mosque, Lahore (1674).

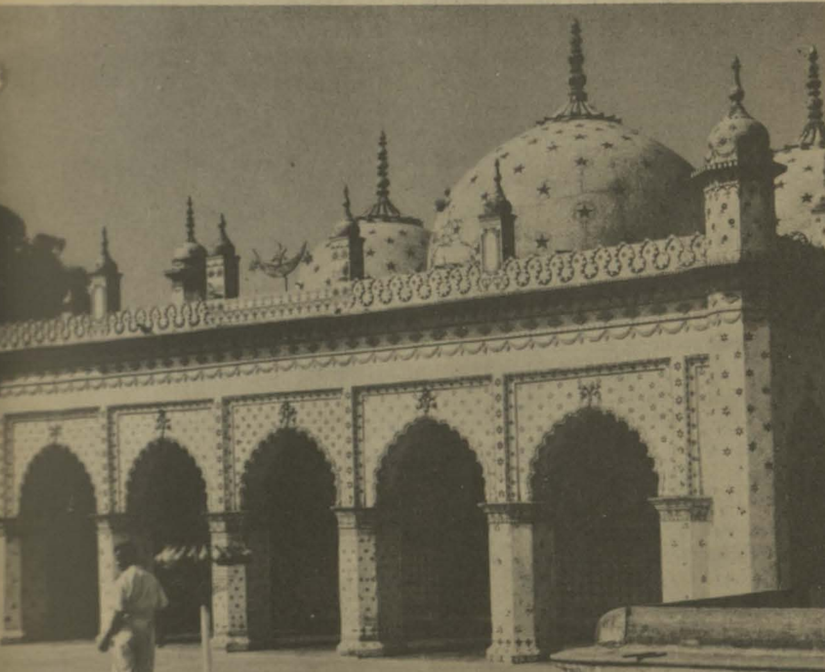
spirit of Muslim traders. The numerous stories and legends about Muslim saints coming by the sea route also testify to the magnitude of missionary activity.

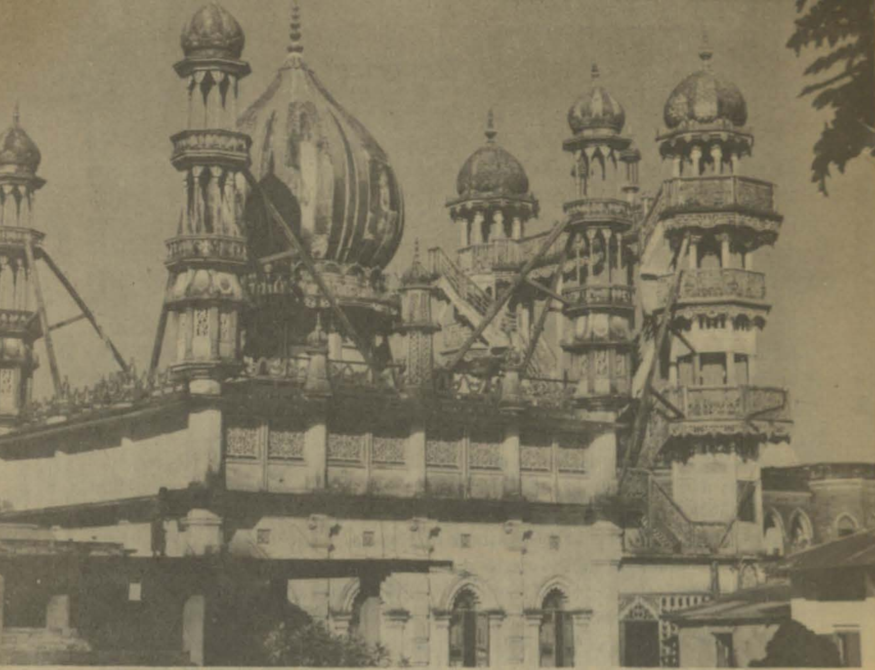
The conquest of Bengal by Muhammad Bakhtiyar Khalji in the year 1200, during the rule of Shahabuddin Ghori, completely changed the social and religious pattern. The flight of Lakshmanasena before 18 horsemen without any resistance was an index of the political and military weakness of the regime. The Hindus rulers appeared to have surrounded themselves with a Brahmanical aristocracy and isolated themselves from the people. This could be the only reason why the mass of the population did not show any opposition to the conqueror. After its conquest by the Muslims, Bengal became a part of the Muslim world and maintained strong links with the rest of Islamic society. Education was released from the confines of social privilege, and *maktabs* and *madrassahs* began to spring up all over the land. Muslim example also gave a fillip to non-Muslim educational activity. Overseas trade appears to have increased, and as a result, silver coinage became a regular feature in Bengal. In the fourteenth century, when the central government at Delhi disintegrated, an independent sultanate was established by Haji Ilyas, who took the title of Sultan Shamsuddin Ilyas Shah. Sultan Firuz Shah Tughlaq twice attempted to reconquer Bengal, but neither attempt bore fruit. The situation remained the same till Sher Shah Suri captured Bengal in 1538.

The development of Bengali literature owes much to the patronage of the Muslim Sultans of Bengal. It was under them that the humanism of Islam was introduced into Bengali literature. The Persian language and its literature also developed in Bengal, and a number of Persian classics were translated into Bengali. Valuable contributions were made to Arabic and Persian literature by a number of oustanding writers, poets and historians. The Sultans encouraged and promoted art and architecture. The Chota Sona Mosque in the Rajshahi District, which is a gem of architecture, and many other mosques and *madrassahs*, scattered all over Bengal, are monumental examples of their active patronage of architecture. Under the great Mughals, Muslim Bengal shared the efflorescence of Muslim culture with other parts of the Subcontinent.

The Arab conquest of Sind, by Muhammad bin Qasim in 711, gave the Muslims a firm foothold on the Subcontinent. The description of Hiun Tsang leaves no doubt that before Islam Sind was so strong and powerful that it successfully repelled the attack of Harsha. The social and economic restrictions inherent in the caste differentiations of Hindu society had, however, gradually sapped the inner vitality of the social system, and Sind fell without much resistance before the Muslim armies. During the rule of the Khalifa Hisham (A.D. 724-743), it appears that Arab rule was extended to the hilly regions of Kashmir and Kangra. During the reign of Mansur

Star Mosque, Dacca.





Chandanpura Mosque, Chittagong.

(A.D. 754-775), the second Khalifa of the Abbasid dynasty, Kandahar was conquered. He also made a determined effort to consolidate the power of Islam in the Subcontinent. According to Al-Idreesi, the famous city of Al-Mansurah was founded by him. The Khalifa Mehdi (A.D. 775-785) sent a naval expedition against Gujrat; and the Khalifa Harun-al-Rashid (A.D. 786-809) was able to extend the frontier of Sind on its western side. Ultimately after three centuries of Arab rule, the forces of disintegration set in and the Turks appeared on the scene.

The Arab conquest of Sind is a landmark in the history of Muslims in the Subcontinent; but the missionary had preceded the soldier; Islam had spread to South India before the Arab conquest of Sind. Being free from the disability imposed by the caste system, the egalitarian and democratic teachings of Islam enlisted a large number of adherents from the underprivileged sections of Hindu society, particularly the so-called untouchables, who saw a chance of being treated on a level with other human beings by becoming Muslims.

Muslim supremacy in Sind opened the way for new cultutral contacts between Muslims and Hindus. These contacts were free and mutually beneficial. The Arabs themselves did not hesitate to learn from the Hindus in the fields of arithmetic, astronomy, medicine and philosophy. With the rise of the Abbasids, Arab interest in the Indian sciences widened. In 771 a party of Sindhi scholars visited Baghdad at the invitation of the Khalifa and took several books with them. One of these books, entitled *Siddhanta*, was

translated into Arabic with the help of an Arab mathematician, Ibrahim Fizari. Similarly, a number of books on astronomy and medicine were also translated into Arabic. It was from the Hindus that the Arabs learned the use of the zero and made it known to the rest of the world.

The Muslims introduced historiography in the real sense of the term to this Subcontinent. Whatever historical literature existed before the arrival of the Muslims was mostly legendary in character. In a series of geographical works the Arabs described the topography and political and cultural geography of the Subcontinent, with particular reference to Sind and the coastal belt. The *Tarikh al-Hind wa al-Sind* by Muhammad Ali bin Hamid Kufi is the earliest history written in the Subcontinent. Its Arabic original is lost, and it is now available only in its Persian translation, which is popularly known as the *Chach Nama.*

During the period of the Sultanate of Delhi (1206-1526), which represents the earliest phase of Muslim rule in the northern plains of the Subcontinent, exhaustive historical accounts of political, social and cultural life were written in the Persian language. Various branches of historiography developed, including world history and dynastic history. Of the latter category, The *Tabqati-Nasiri* and the *Tarikh-i-Firuz Shahi* are well-known examples. Biographies of prominent saints and men of letters also became popular. During the Mughal period, the history of administration in general

Gateway of Hyderabad Fort.





Chhota Katra Gate, Dacca.

and revenue administration in particular received the attention of historians.

The impact of the Arab conquest upon the religious life of Sind was far-reaching. From the accounts given by travellers as well as historians, it is clear that there were two communities—Buddhists and Hindus—living side by side in this region. The Buddhists, who were oppressed by their Hindu rulers, welcomed the newcomers, as did the lower and underprivileged strata of Hindu society. As a result of the example of religious tolerance and humanitarian broadmindedness set by the new conquerors, there were important conversions, including a number of tribal chieftains. The Muslims established mosques and colleges which served as centres of educational and missionary activity. Muslim communities developed in different parts of West Pakistan, particularly in cities like Daibul, Mansurah, Nairun, Multan and Sehwan. In course of time, Islam became the dominant religion of the whole area.

From the tenth century, the Turks became prominent in the political life of the Subcontinent. The Ghaznavids, a Turkish dynasty which rose in Afghanistan, succeeded the Arabs, and under the leadership of Sultan Mahmud, established Muslim rule in the northern part of the Subcontinent. During

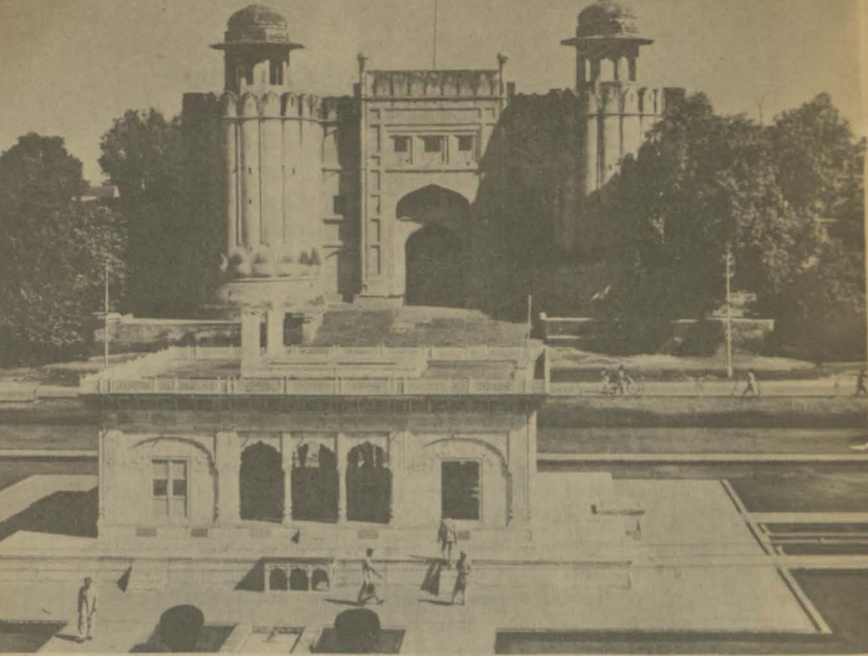
the rule of the later Ghaznavids, Lahore became the capital of the dynasty. But it was after Muhammad Ghori's conquest of Delhi in 1196 A.D. that Muslim rule was established in a vast area extending from the North-West to the Ganges Valley. Later, under Alauddin Khalji, Muslim rule was for the first time extended to South India. The Khalji Empire rose and fell during a brief period of about 30 years. The Khaljis were succeeded by the Tughlaqs who revived the empire and exercised effective control over it. After Muhammad bin Tughlaq, however, the Tughlaq dynasty continued in name only, as it was reduced to a phantom by the invasion of Timur the Lame towards the end of the fourteenth century. This disintegration of the Sultanate paved the way for the Mughal Empire.

The early Muslim rulers of Delhi kept the border open for Muslims, which resulted in the establishment of Muslim colonies in a number of important places. Fortified townships developed and gave birth to an intimate communal life. A sense of common danger strengthened the bonds of common interest. Every small township of these colonies became a flourishing social organization. It is quite natural that in these circumstances the Muslims should have possessed a feeling of unity and a sense of integration, on the one hand, and of distinctness and separation from the Hindus, on the other.

The Sultanate period (1206-1526), witnessed the rise and fall of five dynasties: the Slaves or Mamluka (1206-90), the Khaljis (1290-1320), the Tughlaqs (1320-1413), the Sayyids (1414-51), and the Lodhis (1451-1526). The history of this period resembles a stage play in which various dynasties appear and disappear in rapid succession. One is struck by the long life of the Mughal Empire under a line of illustrious rulers, which, beginning with the Mughal conquest of Delhi and Agra in 1526, did not decline until the death of Aurangzeb in 1707, and was not finally extinguished until the uprising of 1857.

Between the Mughal Empire and the Sultanate of Delhi there is, in spite of some resemblance, a brilliant and striking contrast. The Mughal dynasty founded by the Chughtai Timurid, Babar, had a longer life than all the five dynasties of the Sultanate period put together. It should, however, be noted that the Sultanate was the root and the Mughal Empire the fruit of Muslim initiative and statesmanship in the Subcontinent. The Sultanate period was one of experiment and as such presented difficulties. The Mughal emperors were able to profit from the lessons of the past. They knew the difficulties and dangers which had beset their co-religionists in their thirteenth and fourteenth centuries. The problems of government were no longer so formidable. The Hindu princes and the Mongol hordes of Chingis Khan had been the most dreaded enemies of almost every dynasty in the Sultanate period; and the Sultans, unless they possessed outstanding military skill and organizing ability, had to succumb to one or the other of these foes.

Hinduism and Islam stand poles apart in their attitudes to life. Islam as a religion is strongly monotheistic and insists on the equality of human beings before the law. Hinduism, on the other hand, is extremely flexible



Alamgiri Gate, Old Fort, Lahore (1673-74)

in its attitude towards God, and includes a caste system which divides society into privileged and underprivileged classes. Moreover, Hindus and Muslims were not willing to take the same view of history. Muslim achievements in the political social and economic fields were generally belittled by the Hindus. The benefits that accrued to the Subcontinent from the Muslim regime, in the shape of law and order, an efficient system of justice, a new enthusiasm for education, a network of communications, public works, promotion of economic life and industries, with vastly increased employment opportunities and a widely diffused system of education and learning, were ignored by the Hindu revivalists of the nineteenth century. They tended to forget the immense contribution the Muslims made to the well-being of the Subcontinent by opening up education to the common people. The revivalists also made light of the fact that the Muslims saved the Subcontinent from the Mongols who worked havoc in other parts of Asia and in Europe. Even Akbar's liberal policy towards the Hindus proved to be a failure. His compromising attitude which led him to evolve a composite religion, the *Din-i-Elahi*, and other measures, in effect sowed the seeds of rebellion among the Hindus. The rise of Aurangzeb and his orthodox policy was in part a reaction to the rising Hindu influence inside the government.

The Muslim culture that developed in the Subcontinent naturally had its roots in the teachings of Islam and its world-view. For this reason,

although the Muslim population of the Subcontinent absorbed layer upon layer of Arabs, Turks, Afghans, Iranians and others, they all formed part of a cohesive *millat*—a concept for which, in the absence of any English equivalent, some such phrase as religious commonwealth or community would have to do. The indigenous convert broke all conscious connection with the previous religious culture to which he had belonged. He could not be distinguished from the rest of Muslim society, except perhaps in that he was a little more enthusiastic about his new religion than the born Muslim. Since the early Muslim rulers of the Subcontinent were of Central Asian origin, many Central Asian cultural elements crept into Indian Muslim society. The Iranian influence was, of course, prominent throughout, particularly since Persian had been adopted as the court language of Muslim rule from the time of the Ghaznavids. The influence of Iran became still stronger under the Mughals, who encouraged Iranian immigration into the Subcontinent. In this manner the composite Muslim community of the Subcontinent developed various common Islamic features despite regional variations of linguistic and cultural patterns. Thus, to take language itself as an example, despite regional diversity, a strong influence of Arabic and Persian is noticeable in all languages of Pakistan. Then beyond all, the Islamic precepts of prayer, of man to God and man to man relationships are basically uniform. Thus a distinct nation came into being from the time Islam appeared in this part of the world.

While it is true that there was a common culture based on the Urdu and Persian languages and their literature, which developed under Muslim rule, this was largely limited to the nobility and the upper classes, except in the evolution of Urdu, the language of the camp (from the Turkish word *Orda*), which is a composite of a base of the Hindi Khari Boli, a rich vocabulary of words from Arabic, Persian, the Prakrits (dialects), Sanskrit and Turkish, and the Arabic script. (Also see the chapter on Literature.)

In 1757, some 50 years after the death of the Emperor Aurangzeb, the representatives of the East India Company defeated the Mughal Viceroy of Bengal, the richest province of the Empire. The other centres of Muslim power crumbled one by one. Mysore disappeared as a Muslim State in 1799, when Tipu Sultan was killed in the battle of Seringapatam. Oudh was annexed in 1856. Hyderabad had already become a dependency of the East India Company.

It is true that long before 1857, when the Mughal Empire disappeared even in name, it had lost a great deal of its authority. In the minds of the people, however, the titular Emperor was still a powerful symbol of Muslim rule. The defeat of the uprising of 1857 dealt a final blow to the political power of the Muslims in the Subcontinent.

It was the fate of the Bengal Muslims to suffer more than their share of the consequences of the rise of British power. It was from the Muslims that the British had taken power, and the British were therefore anxious to ensure that the Muslims were not in a position to recapture their lost authority. Clive and others were particularly severe against the former rulers of the Subcontinent, and the earlier phase of the East India Company's

rule was virtually a campaign against the Muslim community.

The 'Permanent Settlement' of Lord Cornwallis elevated Hindu tax farmers to the position of landlords; and the Government policy of political discrimination against the Muslims, combined with the suppressive measures of Hindu landlords, resulted in economic ruin for the Muslim people. The Faraizi Movement, under the leadership of Haji Shariatullah and his son Dudhu Miyan, roused the Muslims of Eastern Bengal to conscious self-assertion. They adhered to the strict letter of the Quran and organized themselves into a well-knit group, refusing to pay the illegal tax imposed by Hindu zemindars on poor Muslim tenants. This led to a direct clash between the Hindu zemindar and the Faraizi.

The Wahabi or Jihad movement, under the leadership of Sayyid Ahmed Shaheed, created an unprecedented enthusiasm for the revival of Islam. When the call came to wage a War of Independence, Muslims from all corners of the land, particularly from the rural areas of Bengal, gathered to fight shoulder to shoulder for the liberation and revival of Muslim society. The Jehad Movement, which was initially directed against the Sikhs, suffered a military defeat at Balakot; but the spirit of resistance endured under the British regime.

The Muslims were also aroused to regain their lost courage and sense of responsibility by the labours of Syed Ahmad Khan, the great educationist and reformer. His Aligarh Movement brought modern education to them, and provided them with the opportunity to secure administrative positions. His educational campaign revived the Muslim's confidence in himself and promoted a sense of political identity. Similar efforts were made by the Syed's great contemporary, Nawab Abdul Latif of Calcutta, who founded the Mohammedan Literary Association, which also aimed at a social and political renaissance for the Muslims. A new threat to the Muslims was emerging in the shape of Hindu revivalism. The Arya Samaj Movement of Swami Dayanand openly avowed the aim of converting Muslims to Hinduism. This was a significant development, as hitherto the Hindus had considered conversion incompatible with their religion.

As the nineteenth century proceeded to its close, political developments gathered pace, due largely to the growing sense of impatience with foreign rule, on the one hand, and to Hindu-Muslim differences, on the other.

In 1885 the Indian National Congress was founded with the help of A.O. Hume, a retired British officer of the Indian Civil Service, and with the approval of the Viceroy, Lord Dufferin. It aimed at a political fusion of all communities in India, but events were to prove the impracticability of such a proposition. As political activity increased, the Muslims became increasingly disillusioned with the Congress. The partition of Bengal, which was largely based on administrative requirements, also had the effect of concentrating attention on the development of the rural areas of East Bengal and Assam, which had a predominently Muslim population and suffered neglect. The Hindu politicians, including important Indian Congress leaders, violently opposed it. The agitation against the partition of Bengal, and the controversial anti-Urdu circular issued by Sir Antony MacDonnell,



Interior decoration in Lahore Fort.



Rohtas Fort, near Jhelum, built by Sher Shah Suri (1539).

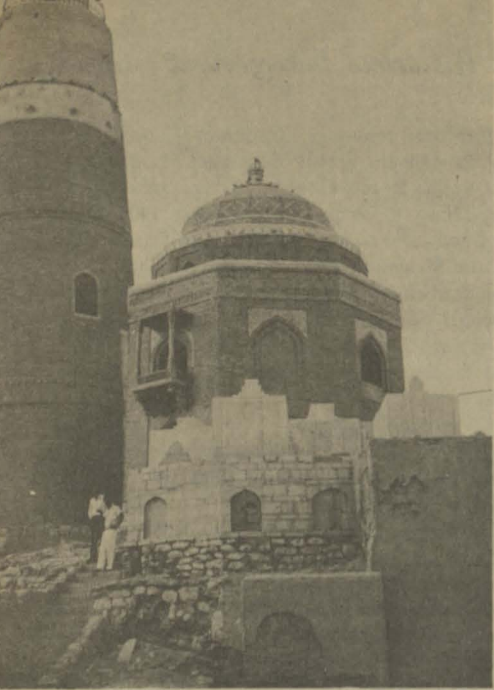
Lieutenant-Governor of the United Provinces, convinced Muslims of the need for protecting their interests. They demanded a system of separate Muslim representation, which was conceded by the British Government and subsequently became part of the Morley-Minto Reforms. In December 1906, Muslim leaders met in conference at Dacca, and Nawab Salimullah of Dacca moved a resolution for the creation of a Muslim political organization. Thus the All-India Muslim League came into being. The British Government's decision to annul the partition of Bengal was announced in Delhi on December 12, 1911, at the Coronation Darbar. The Muslim reaction was bitter. The annulment made them distrust the British, and heralded a significant shift in the political outlook of the Muslim community.

When in the First World War, Turkey took the side of Germany, new dimensions were added to Muslim politics in India. As the sympathies of the Indian Muslims were with Turkey, the British tried to neutralize Muslim feeling by promising to respect the status of the Khalifa. At the end of the War, when the terms of the Treaty of Severes were announced in 1920, the Muslims felt cheated. They decided that they would not co-operate with the Government until the terms of the Treaty were revised. This resulted in the non-co-operation resolution of the Calcutta Khilafat Conference in 1920.

The Hindus, under the leadership of Mahatma Gandhi, lent support to the Khilafat Movement. Gandhi felt that this was the most opportune moment to bring about Hindu-Muslim unity under the Congress flag. He therefore led a non-co-operation movement against the British. The basis of co-operation between the Hindus and the Muslims, however, was negative and therefore did not last long. One community wanted to get rid of the British from India, and the other was struggling for the restoration of the Khilafat in Turkey. As a matter of fact, the end of the non-co-operation movement marks the beginning of a period of ever-growing hostility between Hindus and Muslims This is evidenced by the Hindu's repudiation of the principle of separate electorates to which the Congress and the Muslim League leaders had agreed in 1916 as part of the Lucknow Pact. About the same time, extremist Hindus started the *Shuddhi* and *Sangathan* movements with the aim of liquidating the Muslim entity through forcible conversions. The Muslims reacted by launching the *Tabligh* and *Tanzim* movements to organize themselves for defensive purposes and for missionary work. Communal riots broke out on a large scale in different parts of the Subcontinent.

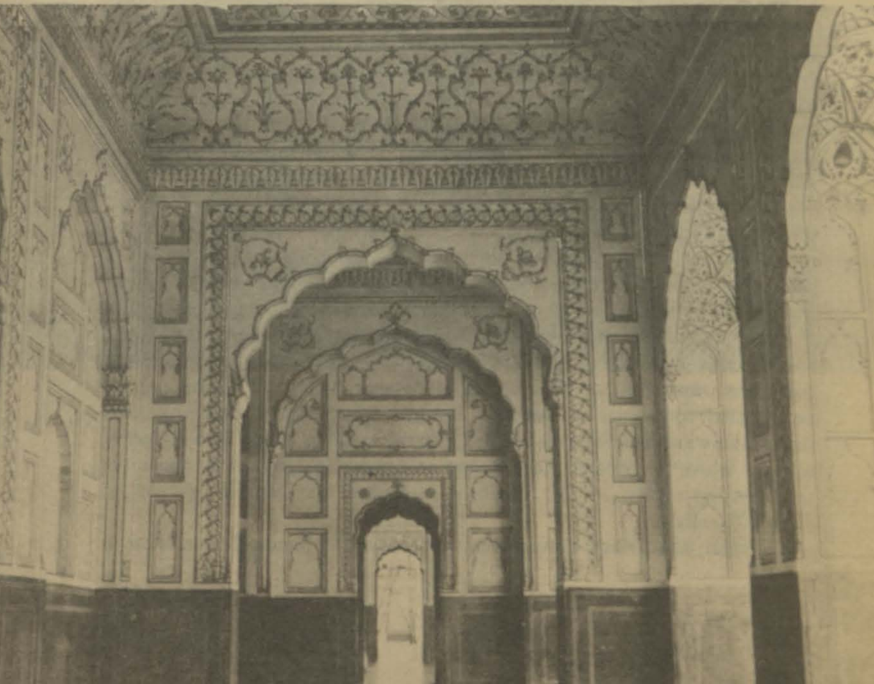
One important reason for the growing hostility between the two communities was the fact that with the inauguration of the Montagu-Chelmsford Reforms, power in the provinces had begun to be transferred to the elected representatives of the people. Under these Reforms, some of the subjects had been transferred to the control of popular Ministers, whose policies accentuated communal differences. Being in a minority in most provinces, the Muslims were naturally dissatisfied with the working of the new Reforms, so that when the Muslim League met at Lahore in May 1924, under the presidentship of Mr. M. A. Jinnah, it demanded that Muslims should be given safeguards.

When the British Government appointed the Simon Commission in



Tomb of Masoom Shah, Sukkur.

Interior of Badshahi Mosque, Lahore.



1927 to recommend further constitutional changes, the Congress not only boycotted it, but set up a committee, under Motilal Nehru, to draft a constitutional scheme of its own choice. The Simon Commission did not recommend adequate safeguards for the Muslims, and the Nehru Committee almost completely ignored their interests. The Nehru Report, which was adopted by the Congress, did not even agree to the principle of federation, insisting on a unitary form of government and claiming absolute power for the majority, which was obviously Hindu. The Muslims opposed the Nehru Report; and in 1929 an All-Parties Muslim Conference, meeting under the presidentship of the Aga Khan, demanded specific safeguards for Muslim interests.

In 1930 Mohammad Iqbal, addressing the annual session of the Muslim League at Allahabad, moved away from the previous demand for safeguards, which was somewhat negative in character, and declared that the future of the Muslims lay in their political independence. To resolve the political impasse, the British Government convened three Round-Table Conferences of Indian leaders in London. The outcome was that the Congress position on safeguards for the Muslims became more intractable. The British Government later announced a Communal Award which was far short of Muslim demands. In 1935 the new Government of India Act was passed, which provided for complete autonomy in the provincial field. Even though the Congress and the League were both dissatisfied with the new Act, they decided to contest the elections, which were held under the new Constitution in 1936/37. At these elections the Congress achieved unexpected success and was able to form Ministries in seven out of a total of 11 Indian provinces. The Congress Governments followed certain policies which were detrimental to the Muslims. As a result, large-scale riots—in which Muslims lost their lives in large numbers and their property was looted—occurred during this period. In this situation the Muslim masses flocked to the Muslim League, which became their representative organization.

In 1939 came the Second World War. The Congress refused to support the war effort, and its Provincial Ministries resigned. The resignation of the Congress Ministries was welcomed by the Muslims. Congress rule had convinced them that the Congress was determined to undermine their religious and cultural entity and to deny them their political rights. It was no surprise, therefore, that the Muslims observed a day of deliverance to express their sense of relief at the end of Congress rule.

In March 1940, a historic annual session of the Muslim League was held at Lahore. For several months before the session, a number of constitutional schemes for safeguarding Muslim interests in an undivided India were considered by the League leaders. The consensus of opinion, however, was that after the experience of Congress rule, no reliance could be placed on constitutional safeguards, and that the only feasible alternative for the Muslims was the establishment of a sovereign State of their own, as had been foreshadowed in Iqbal's Presidential Address of 1930. Accordingly, the following resolution was passed in this session :

RESOLVED that it is the considered view of this Session of the All-

> India Muslim League that no constitutional plan would be workable in this country or acceptable to the Muslims unless it is designed on the following basic principle, viz., that geographically contiguous units are demarcated into regions which should be so constituted, with such territorial adjustments as may be necessary, that the areas in which the Muslims are numerically in a majority, as in the North-Western and Eastern Zones of India, should be grouped to constitute independent States in which the constituent units shall be autonomous and sovereign.[1]

This resolution, which came to be popularly known as the Pakistan Resolution, electrified the Muslim people all over the country, and the vast majority of them soon became enthusiastic supporters of the demand for a separate Muslim homeland. The Hindus opposed the demand. Communal massacres that erupted in Bengal in 1946 and spread to other parts of the Subcontinent made the position extremely critical.

In this situation, the British Government was left with no alternative to accepting the Muslim demand for a separate homeland. When the new Governor-General, Lord Mountbatten, arrived in India, he recommended an elaborate plan to divide the country. But since the British policy-makers as well as the new Governor-General of India were not enthusiastic about the scheme for Pakistan, the new State was created in such a way that a large number of Muslim majority areas were given away to India.

So was it that on August 14, 1947, Iqbal's dream came true under the leadership of Jinnah. Pakistan became an independent country and took its place in the comity of nations.

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[1]In reply to a question by Mahatma Gandhi, Mr. Jinnah in his letter dated September 17, 1944, made it clear that the North-Western and Eastern Zones were to be units of Pakistan. Latif Ahmad Sherwani (Ed.), *Pakistan Resolution to Pakistan*, NPH, Karachi, 1969, p. 79. Also see Introduction to *Foundations of Pakistan*, Vol. II, edited by Syed Sharifuddin Pirzada, NPH, Karachi, 1970.

Constitution and legal System

Before Independence the territories now constituting Pakistan were governed as part of India by the Government of India Act, 1935, which was the constitutional instrument then in force. As a result of the long struggle for independence by Indians and for a separate independent State by Indian Muslims, India was partitioned into two independent Dominions, Pakistan and India. The British Parliament passed the Indian Independence Act, 1947, creating the new Dominions which were to be sovereign in handling their affairs. The Constituent Assembly of each Dominion was to perform the dual function of framing the Constitution and of making laws for the Dominion. Subject to the laws made by its Constituent Assembly, the Dominion of Pakistan was to be governed as nearly as possible in accordance with the Government of India Act, 1935, but with necessary adaptations and modifications; the laws of British India existing immediately before the date of Partition continued as the laws of Pakistan.

The Constituent Assembly functioned as the legislature of the Dominion for over seven years, but did not produce any Constitution. It was dissolved on October 24, 1954, by the Governor-General (Ghulam Mohammad), and a new Constituent Assembly was elected in the middle of 1955 and held its first meeting on July 7, 1955. On September 30, 1955, this Assembly legalized the Governor-General's integration of the four Provinces of West Pakistan, into One Unit and Province in March by passing the Establishment of West Pakistan Bill. Following up on this, the Assembly produced the Constitution of the Islamic Republic of Pakistan, which received the assent of the Governor-General on March 2, 1956, and came into

force on March 23, 1956. It provided for a parliamentary form of government with a President elected by members of the National Assembly and the two Provincial Assemblies, and with a Cabinet of Ministers headed by a Prime Minister appointed by the President. The Prime Minister was to be a person whom the President considered capable of commanding the confidence of the majority of the members of the National Assembly. The President, in whom executive authority was vested, was to act on the advice of the Prime Minister. The Ministers were all to be members of the National Assembly, and the Cabinet was to be collectively responsible to the Assembly. The members of the Assembly were to be elected on an adult franchise basis. Parity in the matter of membership of the National Assembly between the two Provinces, East Pakistan and West Pakistan, was secured by the Constitution. The fundamental rights of the people of the country were made justiciable, and the judiciary was assured independence from any influence.

The Constitution remained operative for about two and a half years. Due to frequent changes of Governments at the Centre and in the Provinces, a feeling of instability spread among the people. Then, by his proclamation of October 7, 1958, the President (Maj.-Gen. Iskander Mirza) abrogated the Constitution, dissolved the National and Provincial Assemblies, dismissed the Central and Provincial Cabinets, and declared Martial Law throughout the country. The Commander-in-Chief of the Pakistan Army (General Muhammad Ayub Khan) was appointed Chief Martial Law Administrator. As practically all the power passed into the hands of the Chief Martial Law Administrator, Maj.-Gen. Iskander Mirza stepped aside in favour of General Muhammad Ayub Khan on October 27, 1958, and the latter assumed office as the President. On March 1, 1962, Field Marshal (as he had by then become) Muhammad Ayub Khan promulgated the new Constitution which came into force on June 8, 1962. The system of direct election on the basis of universal adult suffrage was replaced by indirect election, allowing a limited number of chosen representatives of the people to vote in the election of members of the National and Provincial Assemblies and of the President. Much of the power, which had hitherto been enjoyed by the Legislative Assemblies, passed into the hands of the President and the Governors of the two Provinces. The President and the Governors were not bound to act on the advice of their Ministers, who in turn, were not necessarily members of, nor were they responsible to, the Legislative Assemblies. Though initially the Constitution did not guarantee fundamental rights to the people, yet subsequently by an amendment they were incorporated in the Constitution. On September 6, 1965, when the armed conflict with India started, the President proclaimed a national emergency, and suspended the enjoyment of fundamental rights. The country continued to be governed in accordance with measures adopted under the Emergency till February 16, 1969, when the proclamation of Emergency was revoked by the President.

To secure a democratic form of government, various political parties started campaigns of agitation. A Round-Table Conference held by the President and the leaders of almost all the parties, to evolve an agreed formula for a new constitutional set-up, broke down without any positive

result. As the tempo of political agitation rose and the disturbances caused by various elements of the public assumed alarming proportions, threatening the security of the country, the President relinquished his office on March 25, 1969, and handed over all powers to General Agha Mohammad Yahya Khan, Commander-in-Chief of the Pakistan Army. General Yahya Khan took over as the Chief Martial Law Administrator and assumed the office of President on March 25,1969, when he issued a Proclamation of Martial Law, abrogating the Constitution, dissolving the National and Provincial Assemblies, and directing that the persons holding office as President, members of the President's Council of Ministers, Governors of the Provinces and members of their Councils of Ministers would cease to hold office. However, all laws in force immediately before the abrogation of the Constitution were to continue to remain in force, and all courts and tribunals in existence immediately before the abrogation of the Constitution were to continue and to exercise all their powers and jurisdiction as before. All other persons in the service of Pakistan and other officers and authorities appointed, constituted, or established under the Constitution, were to continue to hold office and perform their functions as before. In addition, military courts to try offences under Martial Law Regulations and other offences under the ordinary law were set up.

On April 4,1969, the Chief Martial Law Administrator issued the Provisional Constitution Order which was to serve, along with the Proclamation of Martial Law dated March 25, 1969, as a guide-post for working the machinery of Government. Subject to the provisions of this Order and of any other Regulation or Order made by the Chief Martial Law Administrator, the State of Pakistan was to be governed as nearly as might be in accordance with the abrogated Constitution of 1962. The fundamental rights relating to safeguards in respect of arrest and detention, protection against retrospective punishment, freedom of movement, assembly, association, trade, business, profession and speech, acquisition, holding and disposition of property, protection of property rights, equality of citizens before the law, and to safeguards against discrimination in service, as contained in paragraphs 2, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 13, 14, 15 and 17 of Chapter I of Part II of the Constitution, were abrogated and all proceedings pertaining to these rights pending in courts were ordered to abate.

No judgment, decree, writ, order or process can be issued by any court or tribunal against the Chief Martial Law Administrator or a Zonal Martial Law Administrator or any Martial Law Authority exercising its power or jurisdiction under the authority of either. No court or tribunal or other authority can call or permit to be called in question the Proclamation of Martial Law, any order made in pursuance of the Proclamation, or any Martial Law Regulation or Martial Law Order or any finding, sentence or order of a Military Court. The appellate powers of the Supreme Court in criminal proceedings have been defined, and they are practically the same as were laid down in the Constitution of 1956; other powers and jurisdiction of the Supreme Court have been preserved. The High Courts and other courts and tribunals exercise the same powers and jurisdiction as they had

immediately before the issue of the Proclamation. Any provision in law providing for the reference of a detention order to an advisory board is to be of no effect.

The Martial Law Government was thus run strictly according to the Constitution, modified as it might be, in some places, by the Orders and Regulations issued by the Chief Martial Law Administrator. During August-October, 1969, the President also appointed 10 Ministers from among suitable civilians to hold charge of various Central Ministries and advise him as a Council of Ministers.

Apart from tackling other problems, General Yahya Khan also held meetings with leaders of various political parties in the country with a view to evolving a way to transfer power to elected representatives of the people. In his broadcast of November 28, 1969, he told the nation that the provisional legal framework for holding elections would be ready by March 31, 1970. This was duly issued on March 30, 1970, and a summary of it is reproduced at the end of this chapter. According to this Order, the elections to the National Assembly were to be held on October 5, 1970, on the basis of universal adult suffrage and on the principle of one man one vote. The National Assembly would be required to complete the task of producing a constitution for the country within 120 days of its first sitting, failing which it would stand dissolved and the nation would have to go to the polls again to elect a new Assembly for the purpose of formulating a constitution. Elections to the Provincial Assemblies were to be held by October 22, 1970, covering East Pakistan and all of the four former Provinces of West Pakistan (Panjab, Sind, N.W.F.P. and Baluchistan, which were to be re-established with the break up of One Unit, according to the Province of West Pakistan (Dissolution) Order 1970.

Martial Law was to remain in force until power was transferred to representatives of the people. But from January 1, 1970, the ban on political activities was lifted, allowing them full scope under broad guidelines for responsible conduct by political parties and their members set out in Martial Law Regulation No. 60.

Lists of voters were issued on schedule in the middle of January 1970, when the draft rolls listed 56.4 million registered voters—31.2 million in East Pakistan and 25.2 million in West Pakistan. About 45 per cent of the total population of East Pakistan and 43 per cent of West Pakistan had thus been enrolled as voters. On January 15, the Chief Election Commissioner announced that claims and objections could be filed any time between the 17th and 31st of January.

However, due to large-scale floods in East Pakistan, beginning in September the same year and disrupting communications as well as causing other widespread damage, the general elections themselves had to be postponed. In complete agreement with the political parties, they were re-scheduled to be held on December 7, 1970, for the National Assembly and December 17, 1970, for the Provincial Assemblies. These elections were held as scheduled with notable orderliness and discipline, and given nation-wide, non-stop radio and TV coverage. Only in certain coastal areas of East

Pakistan (including 9 National and 21 Provincial Assembly Constituencies) directly affected by the devastating cyclone and flood of November 1970 (see section on this in chapter on Social Welfare) were the elections postponed to February 17, 1971. Results of the elections for both the National and the Provincial Assemblies are given in the Table below, showing the Awami League and the People's Party as the two dominantly successful parties, but with the success of the former limited to East Pakistan, and the latter to West Pakistan, and here, too, primarily to the larger two Provinces of the Panjab and Sind.

Party Positions in the National and Provincial Assemblies Obtaining in Elections of December 7 and 17, 1970

	East Pakistan	Panjab	Sind	N.W.F.P.	Baluchistan	Total in all Provinces	Seats in N.A.
Total general seats	300 (a)	180	60	40	20	600 (b)	300 (c)
Awami League	268	—	—	—	—	268	151
People's Party	—	113	32 (d)	3	—	148	81
Independents	6	28	10	6	5	55	16
PML (Qayyum)	—	6	5	10	3	24	9
NAP (Wali)	1	—	—	13	8	22	6
CML	—	15	4	1	—	20	7
Jamiat (Ahle Sunnat)	—	4	7	—	—	11	7
Jamiat (Hazarvi)	—	2	—	4	2	8	7
PML (Convention)	—	6	—	2	—	8	2
PDP	2	4	—	—	—	6	1
Jama'at-i-Islami	1	1	1	1	—	4	4
Nizam-i-Islam	1	—	—	—	—	1	—
Jamiat (Ahle Hadith)	—	1	—	—	—	1	—
NAP (Pakhtoonkhawa)	—	—	—	—	1	1	—
Baluchistan United Front	—	—	—	—	1	1	—
Sind MPPM Mahaz	—	—	1	—	—	1	—

Notes: (*a*) Elections were held for 279 seats only. (*b*) Elections were held for 579 seats only. (*c*) Elections were held for 291 seats only. (*d*) Including 4 Independents backed by the People's Party. (PML—Pakistan Muslim League; NAP—National Awami Party; CML—Council Muslim League; PDP—Pakistan Democratic Party.

But while the manner in which the general elections were held (incidentally for the first time on the basis of adult franchise) presented a fine example of the democratic process in action, and set a historical record for

such action under Martial Law, of which so far no other instance exists anywhere in the world—subsequent unfortunate events undid much of what was so gained and faced the country with a grave crisis.

The Awami League and its leader, Sheikh Mujibur Rahman, had in no way been hindered from running an election campaign based on a long list of economic and political grievances, against exploitation of East Pakistan by West Pakistan, and six points, embodied in a larger 11-point programme, demanding a kind of economic and political autonomy (including provincial 'control over monetary and fiscal policy and foreign exchange earnings and other powers to negotiate foreign trade and aid', leaving the Federal Government with responsibility only for foreign affairs, defence and, subject to certain safeguards, currency) that could easily have led to the national disintegration of Pakistan[1]. But it had obviously also been hoped that both negotiations outside the Assembly as well as deliberations within it would lead to a sane national consensus, within which appropriate concessions could be made to meet Provincial and regional aspirations and to set grievances at rest. And indeed, throughout its election campaign, the Awami League leadership had taken pains to emphasize that their six points were not 'the word of God', that 'they were open to negotiation', and that it was 'mischievous' on the part of its critics even to suggest that the six points visualized anything outside the framework of Pakistan. This position began to change only after the Awami League success at the polls.

To allow time for preliminary consultations before summoning the Assembly, the President fixed the date for its inaugural Assembly, about 11 weeks after the completion of the elections, as March 3, 1971. But instead of a practical spirit of give and take developing, the People's Party, and certain other political parties of West Pakistan, at the end of February felt obliged to demand a postponement of the Assembly, so that they could continue a political dialogue with the Awami League leadership, or alternatively a waiving of the 120 days limit for the Assembly's work—and in case of either alternative being refused, threatened to boycott the Assembly altogether. In view of this situation, the President decided to postpone the inauguration of the Assembly, and on March 1, 1971, in his address to the nation said :

> " . . . In the past few weeks certain meetings between our political leaders have indeed taken place. But I regret to say that instead of arriving at a consensus, some of our leaders have taken hard attitudes. This is most unfortunate. The political confrontation between the leaders of East Pakistan and those of the West is a most

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[1] Enumerated specifically, the six points spell out as : (1) a federal form of government on the basis of the Lahore Resolution of 1940; (2) the Federal Government to deal only with defence and foreign affairs; (3) separate fiscal and monetary policies; (4) the Federal Government to have no tax levying authority; (5) separate external trade account for each federating State; (6) the States to have constitutional authority to maintain para-military or territorial forces.

regrettable situation . . .

"The position briefly is that the majority party of West Pakistan, namely the Pakistan People's Party, as well as certain other political parties, have declared their intention not to attend the National Assembly session on the 3rd of March, 1971. In addition, the general situation of tension created by India has further complicated the whole position. I have, therefore, decided to postpone the summoning of the National Assembly to a later date.

"I have repeatedly stated that a constitution is not an ordinary piece of legislation, but is an agreement to live together. For a healthy and viable constitution, therefore, it is necessary that both East and West Pakistan have an adequate sense of participation in the process of constitution-making.

"Needless to say I took this decision to postpone the date of the National Assembly with a heavy heart. One has, however, to look at the practical aspects of such problems. I realized that with so many representatives of the people of West Pakistan keeping away from the Assembly, if we were to go ahead with the inaugural session on the 3rd of March, the Assembly itself could disintegrate, and the entire effort made for the smooth transfer of power that has been outlined earlier would have been wasted.

"It was therefore imperative to give more time to the politicians to arrive at a reasonable understanding on the issue of constitution-making. Having been given this time, I have every hope that they will rise to the occasion and resolve this problem. I wish to make a solemn promise to the people of Pakistan that as soon as the environments enumerated earlier become conducive to constitution-making, I will have no hesitation in calling the session of the Assembly immediately . . ."

But despite intensified efforts of the President, including a proposal for a conference of the leaders of all parliamentary groups to meet with him at Dacca on March 10, matters showed hardly any signs of improvement. In view of this situation, the President again addressed the nation on March 6, 1971, summoning the National Assembly on March 25, 1971, at Dacca, in the following words :

" . . . As explained earlier, my efforts to arrive at a date for the opening of the National Assembly session in consultation with political leaders have been frustrated.

"I, therefore, in my capacity as President and Chief Martial Law Administrator of this country, feel duty bound to resolve this unfortunate impasse by taking a decision myself. I cannot wait indefinitely. I have consequently decided that the inaugural session of the National Assembly will take place on the 25th of March. It is my sincere hope that this decision will elicit a patriotic and constructive response from all our political leaders.

"Since my efforts to get leaders to arrive at a broad consensus on the process of constitution-making have not succeeded, to those

political leaders who may have doubts about the viability of the future constitution of Pakistan, I would like to say that no better assurance than the provisions of the Legal Framework Order is needed.

"Finally, let me make it absolutely clear that no matter what happens, as long as I am in command of the Pakistan Armed Forces and Head of State, I will ensure the complete and absolute integrity of Pakistan. Let there be no doubt or mistake about this. I have a duty towards millions of people of East and West Pakistan to preserve this country. They expect this from me, and I shall not fail them . . ."

Meanwhile, a five-day strike had been in progress in East Pakistan to protest against the postponement of the Assembly, in which there were also several outbreaks of public disorder and violence. This concluded on March 7 with a mass rally at the Ramna Race Course Maidan in Dacca, and several other bigpublic meetings. In the mass rally, Sheikh Mujibur Rahman listed the following four main demands backed up by a 10-point non-co-operation movement that was to be continued until they were complied with : (i) immediate withdrawal of Martial Law; (ii) transfer of power to the elected representatives of the people; (iii) immediate withdrawal of all military personnel to their barracks, cessation of military build-up, cessation of all firing on civilians, non-interference by military authorities in all branches of Government in East Pakistan; and (iv) maintenance of law and order to be left exclusively to the police and Bengali East Pakistan Rifles (EPR), assisted, wherever necessary, by Awami League volunteers. Leaders of several West Pakistan political parties soon proceeded to Dacca to continue talks with the Sheikh, as his threatened non-co-operation movement continued after its launching on March 8. On March 15, President Yahya Khan, himself, went to Dacca to begin an 11-day round of talks with Sheikh Mujibur Rahman on March 16.

As these talks proceeded, despite some apparent progress, it became more and more clear to the President that the Sheikh was now in effect out to defy all lawful authority and destroy the integrity of Pakistan in the interests of his short-sighted and uncompromising regionalism. Consequently, on March 26, 1971, the Awami League was banned, all political activity was also banned by Martial Law Regulation No. 76 (with the simultaneous cancellation of previous Martial Law Regulations Nos. 60 and 61), and press censorship was introduced by Martial Law Regulation 77. Sheikh Mujibur Rahman himself was arrested in the early morning hours of March 25/26. Thus Pakistan stood facing a grave crisis against which its gallant Armed Forces once again formed an indomitable shield, at one and the same time controlling secessionist forces, dealing with armed support and infiltration from across the border, and ready to deal with any further hostile action that might unwisely be launched from the other side of the Subcontinent. Constitution-making had inevitably to be postponed to await a full normalization of conditions (also see chapter on Government). In his address to the nation on March 26, President Yahya Khan summarized the cumulative press of events that led to this unhappy conclusion as follows :

"...As you are aware, I had a number of meetings with Sheikh Mujibur Rahman in order to resolve the political impasse. Having consulted West Pakistani leaders, it was necessary for me to do the same over there (Dacca) so that areas of agreement could be identified and an amicable settlement arrived at.

"As has been reported in the press and other news media from time to time, my talks with Sheikh Mujibur Rahman showed some progress. Having reached a certain stage in my negotiations with Sheikh Mujibur Rahman, I considered it necessary to have another round of talks with West Pakistani leaders in Dacca.

"Mr. Z. A. Bhutto reached there on 21st March, and I have had a number of meetings with him.

"As you are aware, the leader of the Awami League had asked for the withdrawal of Martial Law and transfer of power prior to the meeting of the National Assembly. In our discussions he proposed that this interim period could be covered by a proclamation by me where-by Martial Law would be withdrawn, Provincial Governments set up, and the National Assembly would *ab initio* sit in two committees—one composed of members from East Pakistan and the other composed of members from West Pakistan.

"Despite some serious flaws in the scheme in its legal as well as other aspects, I was prepared to agree in principle to this plan in the interests of a peaceful transfer of power—but on one condition. The condition which I clearly explained to Sheikh Mujibur Rahman was that I must first have the unequivocal agreement of all political leaders to the scheme.

"I thereupon discussed the proposal with other political leaders. I found them unanimously of the view that the proposed proclamation by me would have no legal sanction. It would neither have the cover of Martial Law nor could it claim to be based on the will of the people. Thus a vacuum would be created and chaotic conditions would ensue. They also considered that splitting the National Assembly into two parts through a proclamation would encourage divisive tendencies that may exist. They therefore expressed the opinion that if it is intended to lift Martial Law and transfer power in the interim period, the National Assembly should meet, pass an appropriate Interim Constitution Bill and present it for my assent. I entirely agreed with their view and requested them to tell Sheikh Mujibur Rahman to take a reasonable attitude on this issue.

"I told the leaders to explain their views to him that a scheme whereby, on the one hand, you extinguish all sources of power, namely Martial Law, and on the other, fail to replace it by the will of the people, through a proper session of the National Assembly, would merely result in chaos. They agreed to meet Sheikh Mujibur Rahman, explain the position and try to obtain his agreement to the interim arrangement for the transfer of power to emanate from the National Assembly...

"On the evening of the 23rd of March, the political leaders

who had gone to talk to Mujib on this issue called on me and informed me that he was not agreeable to any changes in his scheme. All he really wanted was to make a proclamation whereby I should withdraw Martial Law and transfer power.

"Sheikh Mujibur Rahman's action of starting his non-co-operation movement is an act of treason. He and his party have defied the lawful authority for over three weeks . . . they have tried to run a parallel government. They have created turmoil, terror and insecurity . . .

"I should have taken action against Sheikh Mujibur Rahman and his collaborators weeks ago, but I had to try my utmost to handle the situation in such a manner as not to jeopardize my plan of peaceful transfer of power. In my keenness to achieve this aim, I kept on tolerating one illegal act after another. And at the same time I explored every possible avenue of arriving at some reasonable solution, but he has failed to respond in any constructive manner. The proclamation that he proposed was nothing but a trap. He knew that it would not be worth the paper it was written on, and in the vacuum created by the lifting of the Martial Law he could have done anything with impunity. His obstinacy, obduracy and absolute refusal to talk sense can lead to but one conclusion—the man and his party are enemies of Pakistan, and they want East Pakistan to break away completely from the country. He has attacked the solidarity and integrity of this country—this crime will not go unpunished.

"We will not allow some power-hungry and unpatriotic people to destroy this country and play with the destiny of 128 million people.

"In my address to the nation of 6th March, I had told you that it is the duty of the Armed Forces to ensure the integrity, solidarity and security of Pakistan. I have ordered them to do their duty and fully restore the authority of the Government . . .

"In the end let me assure you that my main aim remains the same, namely transfer of power to the elected representatives of the people. As soon as the situation permits, I will take fresh steps towards the achievement of this objective . . ."

(Also see Supplement I)

Legal Framework Order, 1970 : The President and Chief Martial Law Administrator, General A.M. Yahya Khan, issued the Legal Framework Order, 1970 (President's Order No. 2 of 1970), concerning the election of the National Assembly, its function and its procedure, on March 30, 1970. This order includes the following basic provisions.

Composition of the National Assembly : (1) There shall be a National Assembly of Pakistan consisting of 313 members of whom 300 shall be elected to fill general seats and 13 to fill seats reserved for women. (2) In conformity with

the population figures appearing in the Census of 1961, the number of seats in the National Assembly shall be distributed amongst the Provinces and the Centrally Administered Tribal Areas, as set out in Schedule I. (3) Clause 1 shall not be construed as preventing a woman from being elected to a general seat.

Schedule I

National Assembly of Pakistan

(Art. 4, 2)

	General	Women
East Pakistan	162	7
The Panjab	82	3
Sind	27	1
Baluchistan	4	1
The N.W.F.P.	18	1
Centrally Adm. Tribal Areas	7	—
Total :	300	13

Composition of the Provincial Assemblies : (1) There shall be a Provincial Assembly for each Province (a Province and Provincial Assembly shall be construed as references, respectively, to a new Province provided for in the Province of West Pakistan (Dissolution) Order, 1970, and the Provincial Assembly for such Province) consisting of the number of members elected to fill general seats and to fill seats reserved for women, as set out in Schedule II. (2) Clause 1 shall not be construed as preventing a woman from being elected to a general seat.

Schedule II

Provincial Assemblies

(Art. 5, 2)

	General	Women
East Pakistan	300	10
The Panjab	180	6
Sind	60	2
Baluchistan	20	1
N.W.F.P.	40	1

Principle of Election : (1) Except as provided in Clause 2, the members shall be elected to the general seats from territorial constituencies by direct election on the basis of adult franchise in accordance with law.

(2) The President may, by regulation, make separate provision for election of members from the Centrally Administered Tribal Areas.

(3) As soon as practicable after the general election of members of the National Assembly, the members from a Province for the seats reserved for women in that Assembly shall be elected by persons elected to the general seats from that Province in accordance with law.

(4) The members for the seats reserved for women in a Provincial Assembly shall be elected by persons elected to the general seats in that Assembly in accordance with law.

Election Commission for Conduct of Elections : For the purposes of election of members of an Assembly and matters connected therewith, the President shall constitute an Election Commission consisting of the following members: the Commissioner, who shall be Chairman of the Commission, and two other members, each being a person who is a permanent judge of a High Court. The Order then goes on to lay down specific qualifications and disqualifications with regard to membership of the Assemblies, which include that no person can at the same time be a member of more than one Assembly or a member of the same Assembly from more than one constituency, and that persons in the full-time service of Pakistan and their spouses shall not be eligible for election.

Date of Polling : Polling for Election to the National Assembly shall commence on the 5th of October, 1970, and polling for election to the Provincial Assembly shall commence on a date not later than the 22nd of October, 1970.

Summoning of the National Assembly : (1) After the close of the general election of members of the National Assembly, the President shall, for the purpose of framing a Constitution for Pakistan, summon the National Assembly to meet on such day and at such time and place as he may think fit, and the National Assembly so summoned shall stand constituted on the first day of its meeting, provided that nothing in this Clause shall be construed as preventing the President from summoning the National Assembly on the ground that all the seats of members have not been filled.

(2) After meeting as convened under Clause 1, the National Assembly shall meet at such times and places as the Speaker may decide. (3) The National Assembly shall, subject to reasonable adjournments, meet from day to day to transact its business.

Functions of the National Assembly and Presidential Authentication : The function of the Assembly shall be to frame a Constitution for Pakistan. The Constitution shall be drawn up and passed by the Assembly in the form of a Bill to be called Constitution Bill within a period of 120 days from

the date of its meeting, and on its failure to do so shall stand dissolved.

The Constitution Bill, as passed by the National Assembly shall be presented to the President for authentication. The National Assembly shall stand dissolved in the event that authentication is refused.

Save as provided in the Order for the purpose of framing a Constitution for Pakistan, the National Assembly shall not meet in that capacity until the Constitution Bill passed by the National Assembly has been authenticated by the President and has come into force.

A Provincial Assembly shall not be summoned to meet until after the Constitution Bill passed by the National Assembly has been authenticated and has come into force.

Fundamental Principles of the Constitution : The Constitution shall be so framed as to embody the following fundamental principles :

(1) Pakistan shall be a Federal Republic to be known as the Islamic Republic of Pakistan in which the Provinces and other territories which are now and may hereafter be included in Pakistan shall be so united in a Federation that the independence, the territorial integrity and the national solidarity of Pakistan are ensured and that the unity of the Federation is not in any manner impaired

(2) (a) Islamic ideology which is the basis for the creation of Pakistan shall be preserved; and (b) The Head of the State shall be a Muslim.

(3) (a) Adherence to fundamental principles of democracy shall be ensured by providing direct and free periodical elections to the Federal and the Provincial legislatures on the basis of population and adult franchise; (b) the Fundamental Rights of the citizens shall be laid down and guaranteed; (c) the independence of the Judiciary in the matter of dispensation of justice and enforcement of fundamental rights shall be secured.

(4) All powers, including legislative, administrative and financial, shall be so distributed between the Federal Government and the Provinces that the Provinces shall have maximum autonomy, that is to say maximum legislative, administrative and financial powers; but the Federal Government shall also have adequate powers, including legislative, administrative and financial powers, to discharge its responsibilities in relation to external and internal affairs, and to preserve the independence and territorial integrity of the country.

(5) It shall be ensured that (a) The people of all areas in Pakistan shall be enabled to participate fully in all forms of national activities; and (b) within a specified period, economic and all other disparities between the Provinces and between different areas in a Province are removed by the adoption of statutory and other measures.

Preamble of the Constitution : The Constitution shall contain, in its preamble, an affirmation that—

(1) the Muslims of Pakistan shall be enabled, individually and collectively, to order their lives in accordance with the teachings of Islam as set out in the Holy Quran and Sunnah; and

(2) the minorities shall be enabled to profess and practise their religions freely and to enjoy all rights, privileges and protection due to them as citizens of Pakistan.

Directive Principles : The Constitution shall set out directive principles of State Policy by which the State shall be guided in the matter of

(1) promoting the Islamic way of life;
(2) observance of Islamic moral standards ;
(3) providing facilities for the teaching of the Holy Quran and Islamiat to the Muslims of Pakistan; and
(4) enjoining that no law repugnant to the teachings and requirements of Islam, asset out in the Holy Quran and Sunnah, is made.

National and Provincial Assemblies, the First Legislatures : The Constitution shall provide that

(1) the National Assembly, constituted under this Order, shall
(a) be the first Legislature of the Federation for the full term if the Legislature of the Federation consists of one House, and
(b) be the first Lower House of the Legislature of the Federation for the full term if the Legislature of the Federation consists of two Houses.
(2) the Provincial Assemblies elected in accordance with this Order shall be the first Legislatures of the respective Provinces for the full term.

Procedures : Schedule III of the Order lays down definitions and detailed rules of procedure for the Assembly. In this connection, it is also pointed out that the President may address the National Assembly and send a message or messages to the Assembly, and that any question or doubt in the interpretation of any provision of the Order shall be resolved by a decision of the President, and that such decision shall be final and not liable to question in any court. The President, and not the National Assembly, shall have the power to make any amendment in the Order.

Basic Legal System : At the apex of the judicial hierarchy stands the Supreme Court of Pakistan, which acts as the final guardian of the Constitution and also the final court of appeal arising out of cases decided by the High Courts. Next come the High Courts in the Province of East Pakistan and the four Provinces of West Pakistan exercising general control over the administration of justice in their respective territorial limits. Under the High Courts are the courts administering civil and criminal justice. The independence of the judiciary is ensured. The judges of the superior courts hold office during good behaviour until they attain the age of superannuation, and *not* during the pleasure of the President.

The rule of law is observed. Most of the law is in the shape of statutes. The interpretations of law made and the rules laid down by the superior

courts form part of the law of the land. In matters concerning succession, wills, *wakfs* (a Trust Fund under Muslim law), gifts, marriage, divorce, dower, maintenance, guardianship, etc., the parties are governed by their religious law modified as it may be by statutory law.

Martial Law and its administration is limited to regulations and ordinances specifically promulgated under it, and these do not otherwise interfere with the normal working of the country's civil judicial system in any way, even though no person can challenge or otherwise bring a case against any Martial Law authority or regulation in any civil court of law, including the Supreme Court.



An unusual view from the Lahore Fort with the Samadi of Ranjit Singh in the background.

Government

WHILE the permanent form of government for Pakistan will be decided in the light of a new Constitution (see chapter on Constitution and Legal System), the governmental structure is until that time functioning under Martial Law as a trust of the State of Pakistan and its people.

Chief Executive : The Martial Law Government of Pakistan is headed by a President in the person of General Agha Mohammad Yahya Khan, who is also the Chief Martial Law Administrator.

On his taking over as the Chief Administrator on March 25, 1969, when President Mohammad Ayub Khan had decided to step down in favour of Martial Law due to prevalent political circumstances, General Yahya Khan abrogated the then functioning Constitution of 1962 and proclaimed Martial Law in the country, with the assurance that the country would be guided to a truly representative Government based on an agreed workable Constitution within a stipulated period of time.

Steps towards Transfer of Power : Towards this end steps were taken almost immediately, though at the same time the 1962 Constitution was reintroduced through the Provisional Constitution Order 1969, with restrospective effect and with the omission of certain articles and clauses, on April 4, 1969, and General Yahya Khan assumed the office of President to meet requirements of State and administration. Then on November 28, 1969, President Yahya Khan announced his plan for General Elections about a year later, on October 5, 1970, and the subsequent transfer of power (see chapter on Constitution and Legal System).

On March 30, 1970, the President issued the Legal Framework Order, 1970, concerning the election of the National Assembly, its function and its

procedure, and the composition of Provincial Assemblies for East Pakistan and the four former Provinces of West Pakistan—the Panjab, Sind, Baluchistan and N.W.F.P. This was followed up by the actual break up of One Unit in West Pakistan and the re-establishment of the four above-mentioned Provinces on July 1, 1970. The general elections had, however, to be postponed due to the devasting cyclone and floods in East Pakistan (see special section on this in chapter on Social Welfare), and were rescheduled for December 7, 1970. Elections to the Provincial Assemblies were similarly postponed from October 22, 1970, to December 17, 1970, and elections in the cyclone-affected areas were deferred to February 17, 1971. The elections took place in a most orderly and disciplined manner on schedule and with non-stop television and radio coverage from all TV and Radio Stations in Pakistan (for the election result, see chapter on Constitution and Legal System).

However, after the elections, despite all efforts of the President to achieve a reasonable settlement that would maintain the integrity of Pakistan, the now defunct Awami League majority party of East Pakistan, headed by Sheikh Mujibur Rahman, remained adamant on its six points, which demanded a kind of provincial autonomy that would have undermined this integrity—not least by making the Centre basically ineffectual. And as the talks held from March 16 between the President and Sheikh Mujibur Rahman—and subsequently with other leaders and advisers as well—proceeded to a deadlock, it also became increasingly clear that the leadership behind the six-point demand was in effect intent on breaking up Pakistan and quite prepared to seek foreign help for this purpose. This leadership misled the people of East Pakistan with a campaign of hatred against West Pakistan based on a mixture of some just but mostly distorted or exaggerated grievances marshalled into forces of political, economic and personal resentments. Under these circumstances, President Yahya Khan on March 26 banned all political activity throughout the country, and in particular completely banned the Awami League. The President said, "Sheikh Mujibur Rahman's action of starting his non-co-operation movement is an act of treason. He and his party have defied the lawful authority for over three weeks. They have insulted Pakistan's flag and defiled the photograph of the Father of the Nation. They have tried to run a parallel government. They have created turmoil, terror and insecurity.

"A number of murders have been committed in the name of the movement. Millions of our Bengali brethren and those who have settled in East Pakistan are living in a state of panic and a very large number had to leave that wing out of fear for their lives...

"In my address to the nation of March 6, I had told you that it is the duty of the Pakistan Armed Forces to ensure the integrity, solidarity, and security of Pakistan. I have ordered them to do their duty and fully restore the authority of the Government.

"In view of the grave situation that exists in the country I have decided to ban all political activities throughout the country. As for the Awami League, it is completely banned as a political party. I have also decided to impose complete Press Censorship. Martial Law regulations will very shortly

be issued in pursuance of these decisions." (These were in fact promulgated the same day as Martial Law Regulations 76 and 77, respectively.)

"I appeal to my countrymen", the President concluded, "to appreciate the gravity of the situation for which the blame rests entirely on the anti-Pakistan and secessionist elements and to act as reasonable citizens of the country, because therein lies the security and salvation of Pakistan. . . " (Also see chapter on Constitution and Legal System and Supplement).

By the time of this declaration of the President, the Awami League leadership's intentions had become quite clear and unmistakable. The hard-core of leaders realized that neither the President nor the other political parties would agree to a 'constitutional scuttling' of Pakistan, and these extremists, without the knowledge or approval of their rank and file, had long been making secret preparations for the achievement of their goals by force.

The conspiracy originally uncovered by the Agartala Case, during the Ayub regime, was now fully under way. Volunteers were under training in every district in the garb of 'Sangram Parishads'. Arms and ammunition had been smuggled in from across the border and stocked at strategic points all over the Province, including the Jagannath Hall of Dacca University. An idea of the sinister character and timing of the conspiracy may be gained from the fact that on the night of March 25/26 mortar firing was started from the Jagannath Hall, while within three hours innumerable barricades were set up all over the city of Dacca. Those whom the Awami League leaders failed to win over by persuasion, they sought to line up through Fascist tactics. A reign of terror was unleashed and unmentionable atrocities were committed as mobs took to the streets and indulged in arson, murder, rape and loot. The true dimensions of the killings directed and carried out by Fascist elements of the Awami League became clear only as the Army regained control.

All evidence goes to show that the small hours of March 26 had been set as the zero hour for an armed uprising and the formal launching of the 'independent republic of Bangla Desh'. The plan was to seize Dacca and Chittagong, lying astride the Army's air and sea lifelines to West Pakistan. The Army in East Pakistan at the time consisted of a division of 18 battalions, including 12 from West Pakistan, spread thinly over cantonments in the interior and deployed along the border with India. Arrayed against them were infiltrators from across the border and deserters from the East Pakistan Rifles (EPR), the East Bengal Regiment and other auxiliary Forces equipped with mortars, recoilless rifles, and light and heavy machineguns, which, according to subsequent evidence, were liberally supplied from across the border.

The bid for secession was thus already on the move before the President's address to the nation. He had truly exhausted all possibilities of a peaceful transfer of power, and his call to the Armed Forces to do their duty had come none too soon. Barely a few hours before the Awami League's zero hour, the Armed Forces made a series of pre-emptive strikes around the midnight of March 25/26, seized the initiative and saved the country.

Sheikh Mujibur Rahman was arrested at 01.30 hours on March 26,

1971, and the following day the Army assumed control in East Pakistan, under the command of Martial Law Administartor and Governor, Zone B, Lt. Gen. Tikka Khan. Measures to bring back full law and order to the whole of the Province were taken apace, despite unfriendly armed and other support to secessionists from across the border. By the end of the month, law and order began to be revived in all major towns and most of the countryside, office workers resuming their routine work.

Pending the establishment of completely normal conditions, and the subsequent fulfilment of his cherished objective regarding the transfer of power, President Yahya Khan, as the Chief Executive, is aided by five Zonal Martial Law Administrafors who, in addition to administering Martial Law in their Zones, also head the civil administration of their respective Provinces as their Governors. The five Zones and Provinces are B—East Pakistan, C—Panjab, D—Sind, E—Baluchistan, F—N.W.F.P. Also directly assisting the President in the civil administration are the Secretaries of the various Ministerial Divisions, (see below). The Council of Ministers (comprising 10 Ministers selected by the President in August/September 1969, from among suitable civilians) was, however, dissolved by the President on February 22, 1971, in view of the political situation obtaining in the country. On the other hand, in the same year Zonal Deputy-Martial Law Administrators were appointed by the President to assist in the administration of Martial Law in their respective Provinces/Zones.

Central Secretariat : The Central Secretariat, comprising the President's Secretariat, the Cabinet Secretariat and the various Ministries, is charged with the responsibility of carrying on the administration of the country in accordance with the policies and decisions of the Chief Executive.

Each Division of the Secretariat is headed by a Secretary or by a Joint Secretary. In the case of the President's Secretariat and the Cabinet Secretariat, the Secretary works directly under the President, except in the Planning and Economic Affairs Divisions, where for decisions at the Ministerial level, the Secretary is responsible to the Deputy Chairman of the Planning Commission, who has the rank of a Minister without actual Cabinet status. In the case of Ministries, the Secretary is currently also responsible to the President.

Attached Departments : Divisions of Ministries control their respective attached Departments and subordinate offices, which execute policies as directed by individual Divisions. The Divisions also provide the sanctioning authority for administrative and other expenditures incurrable by the Departments and offices.

Attached Departments vary greatly in size, importance and powers. Some are headed by officials having the status of a full Secretary and others by officials equal in rank to a Deputy Secretary. Although the status varies, a typical attached Department is likely to be headed by a Director-General, or a Chief Administrator, with adequate discretionary and financial powers.

Subordinate Offices : These offices work under the direct control of the respective Ministries for the execution of policies. Matters of personnel administration, fixation of pay, increments, transfers, promotions and financial sanctions, however, are directly controlled by the Ministry concerned. Subordinate offices are usually headed by officers of a rank and status lower than that of Secretary to the Government.

President's Secretariat : The President's Secretariat consists of two Divisions: Planning and Economic Affairs.

The Planning Division is assigned the work of assessing the material and human resources of the country ; formulating national plans and programmes; preparing over-all evaluations of progress achieved ; and maintaining data for the purpose of foreign aid negotiations.

The Economic Co-ordination and External Assistance Division deals with the assessment of economic requirements and with negotiations for securing economic and technological assistance from foreign Governments and international agencies.

The Central Statistical Office is a subordinate body under the Economic Affairs Division, headed by a Director-General. It collects, collates and publishes statistical data of national importance.

Cabinet Secretariat : This also comprises two Divisions: Cabinet and Establishment.

The Cabinet is entrusted with the secretarial work of the Cabinet and its committees, the Governor's Conference, the National Economic Council and the Economic Co-ordination Committee of the Cabinet, and supervises the implementation of decisions taken by them. The Central Intelligence Bureau works under this Division, which also contains the President's Inspection Team and exercises administrative control over the Capital Development Authority.

The Establishment Division regulates all matters of general applicability to the public services; recruitment to the superior services; administration of the All-Pakistan and other Central Secretariat Services ; in-service training of public servants; civil awards; staff welfare. This Division also has an Organization and Management (O & M) Wing which constantly reviews the organization, procedures and methods of the working of Government offices.

Ministries

Defence : This Ministry is responsible for the functioning of Defence Services, defence equipment and warlike stores, ports and shipping, civil aviation, tourism, cyphers, meteorology, ordnance factories, other units of defence production, and all matters relating to the defence of Pakistan.

Foreign Affairs : Concerned primarily with the country's relations with foreign countries, this Ministry handles protocol, diplomatic postings in foreign countries, planning foreign tours of the President and visits of foreign

dignitaries, and security operations of the cypher traffic. The Ministry also co-ordinates the efforts of various Government Departments to increase economic and technical co-operation with friendly countries, through its Directorates of Technical Co-operation and Economic Co-ordination.

Finance : This Ministry controls all financial transactions of the Government, and is responsible for preparing the Annual Budget of the country as well as affecting its implementation. Under the Revised System of Financial Control and Budgeting, introduced since July 1, 1969, the Secretary in charge of a Ministry/Division, is the principal accounting officer in respec. of the expenditure to be incurred against Budget grants controlled by his Ministry/ Division. This revised policy of financial control is intended to be more responsive to the requirements of a developing economy. The Central Board of Revenue is an attached department of this Ministry, while the State Bank, the Auditor-General (for administrative purposes only), the National Bank of Pakistan, PICIC, and other financial corporations are controlled by this Ministry.

Home Affairs : This Ministry has three Divisions : Home Affairs, States and Frontier Regions, and Kashmir Affairs. While the Home Affairs Division deals with internal security and public administration (including immigration, passports, warrant of precedence, public holidays, control of foreigners, anti-corruption measures, population census, pardons, policy co-ordination of higher training in Civil Defence, policy regarding censorship, prescription of books and other publications), the States and Frontier Regions Division is concerned with political and military administration of the North-West tribal areas. The following offices function under the Home Affairs Division: Directorate of Immigration and Passports, Directorate of Civil Defence, Pakistan Special Police Establishment. The Kashmir Affairs Division assits the Azad Government of Jammu and Kashmir through its Chief Advisor, who also holds the position of Resident in Gilgit and Baltistan.

Industries and Natural Resources : As the name suggests, this Ministry comprises two Divisions : Industries and Natural Resources. The Industries Division includes the following offices dealing with industrial planning and co-ordination, investment, enterprise, research and industrial production :

— Industrial Technical Assistance Centre;
— Departments of Printing, Stationery, and Explosives ;
— Pakistan Standards Institute;
— Investment Advisory Centre and Investment Corporation;
— Directorate of Investment Promotion and Supplies;
— Patent Office;
— Central Testing Laboratories.

The Natural Resources Division is responsible for the following :

— Indus Basin Works operative under the Indus Basin Treaty between Pakistan, India and the World Bank;
— exploration, exploitation and development of oil, gas, minerals,

water and power resources of the country;

— supervision of refining, distribution and fixation of prices of petroleum products;
— development of natural gas resources and distribution of gas to various areas;
— Geological Survey of Pakistan;
— co-ordination of mineral development schemes,
— Karachi Electric Supply Company;
— Central agencies and institutions for the promotion of special studies and research in power, mineral and water resources.

Food and Works: Presently grouped together to form one Ministry, the Food and Agriculture Division and the Rehabilitation and Works Division each function in diverse fields. While the former deals with agriculture, plant protection, forestry, animal husbandry, fisheries, food planning with the co-operation of FAO, agricultural census, etc., the later is concerned mainly with : the construction and maintenance of Government buildings not under the Defence Division and the provision of offices and residential accommodation for Central Government employees; the requisition of buildings; foreign aid for housing; and water supply and sewerage schemes. In addition, it controls the Pakistan Public Works Department and the Estate Offices at Karachi and Rawalpindi. Finally, it is also concerned with the relief and rehabilitation of displaced persons and the resettlement of refugees from Jammu and Kashmir in the border districts of Pakistan. The Agriculture Division has administrative charge of the Central Cotton and Jute Committees, the Institute of Cotton Research and Technology, Department of Plant Quarantine and Locust Warning, Zoological Surveys, Marine Fisheries and the Food and Agriculture Council, too.

Commerce : Trade between the two zones as well as commercial policy and transactions with foreign countries and Governments are regulated by the Ministry of Commerce, which also formulates the trade and tariff policies of Pakistan generally. An Export Promotion Bureau has been set up by this Ministry for the expansion of trade abroad. Increased production and alternative uses of the two main cash crops of Pakistan, namely jute and cotton, are a special responsibility of this Ministry, which has set up separate Jute and Cotton Boards for the purpose. The Tariff Commission which deals with tariff policy, the Department of Insurance, the Pakistan Insurance Corporation and the Trading Corporation of Pakistan are all controlled by this Ministry.

Education and Scientific Research : The Education Division is responsible for the development of educational and cultural institutions in Pakistan. The Ministry also deals with external cultural relations, promoting international contacts in art and other cultural activities and through scientific exchanges. It further arranges overseas studies and scholarships for Pakistani students.

The Department of Archaeology and Museums, the Central Bureau of Education and the Directorate of Central Government Educational Institutions are attached Departments of this Ministry. The first is responsible for excavation, exploration and preservation of archaeological and historical

treasures. The second collects and disseminates educational statistics and information. The third is responsible for the administration of Central educational institutions at Islamabad, Rawalpindi and Dacca. The Directorate of Archives and Libraries is a subordinate body of the Ministry, which is responsible for the development of libraries and national archives.

In addition, this Ministry controls eight autonomous bodies: Printing Corporation of Pakistan; Pakistan Sports Control Board; Iqbal Academy; National Book Centre; Central Boards for the Development of Bengali and Urdu, located at Dacca and Lahore, respectively; the Urdu Development Board, Karachi; and the Pakistan Institute of Development Economics. It also provides financial grants for such organizations as the Pakistan Arts Council.

Pakistan's growing concern with scientific and technological advancement is stressed by the creation of a separate Division for this purpose. The work of the Pakistan Atomic Energy Commission and the Pakistan Council of Scientific and Industrial Research is also co-ordinated through the Scientific and Technological Research Division of this Ministry.

Information and National Affairs: The Ministry of Information and National Affairs is responsible for the dissemination of information at home and abroad through the media of films, television, radio and the press. The Department of Films and Publications, headed by a Director, is an organ of this Ministry, producing films and literature for internal and external distribution. The Press Information Department, headed by the Principal Information Officer, is the main channel of news communication between the Government and National and international press. It also looks after matters relating to press relations and the development of the newspaper industry. The Bureau of National Reconstruction and Reference collects material on topics of national interest and importance. The Directorate-General of Radio Pakistan, the Pakistan Television Corporation, the Tribal Publicity Department and the Central Board of Film Censors are all controlled by this Ministry. The task of promoting greater understanding and solidarity among different sections of the people has been entrusted to an autonomous body known as the Pakistan Council for National Integration, which operates under the control of this Ministry.

Communications: The responsibilities of this Ministry extend from the country's rail and road transport system to the postal, telegraphic and telephone services, including radio-telegraph links. Until recently, it also controlled shipping and navigation, including the Directorate of Ports and Shipping. The National Shipping Corporation, as well as the Karachi and Chittagong Port Trusts, were under its jurisdiction. As from January 1967, however, the entire subject of shipping has been transferred to the Ministry of Defence, which administers the newly built Chalna Port in East Pakistan directly, through the Director of Ports; while smaller ports, like Pasni and Gwadur in West Pakistan, are placed under the Provincial Government. The subject of Hajj (i.e. all the arrangements concerned with the travel of pilgrims to Mecca) is similarly dealt with by the Directorate of Shipping under the Ministry of Defence. The Department of

Civil Aviation is presently also controlled by the Ministry of Defence. The subject of railways was transferred to the Provinces in 1962, but the Ministry of Communications still retains a Railways Wing for the purposes of co-ordination. Road transport is also largely governed by Provincial road transport authorities. River traffic in East Pakistan is controlled by the Inland Waterways Authority, which is a Provincial organization. The work of the Central Ministry of Communications at present is thus concentrated on the Pakistan Post, Telephone and Telegraph Departments.

Law and Parliamentary Affairs : The Law Division of this Ministry advises the Government on all legal and constitutional matters and on questions of law involved in any specific case or legal problem. All legislative proposals, agreements and other legal instruments are scrutinized by this Division, including legal aspects and constructions to be placed on international agreements. This Ministry also advises the Central Government in respect of litigation before the Supreme Court and/or the High Courts.

The Parliamentary Affairs Division, which was originally entrusted with the duties of summoning and prerogating the National Assembly, is at present a defunct unit. It will resume its function when a new constitution is adopted.

The Election Commission, a statutory body for general elections, is placed under the Division for administrative purposes.

Health, Labour, Social Welfare and Family Planning: This Ministry consists of three Divisions responsible for distinct but interrelated subjects. The Health Division is responsible for co-ordination in matters relating to health and medical services in the various Provinces of the country, and it advises Provincial Governments on questions of health and medical development and planning. It also deals with foreign Governments and international agencies in matters of public health and medical research and training. At the national level, the following autonomous and Government bodies are executive organs of the Health Divisions :

— Central Board of Malaria Eradication;
— Directorate of TB Control, Karachi;
— National Tuberculosis Control Board, Karachi.
— Office of Central Health Establishments and Stores, Karachi;
— Nursing Council of Pakistan, Islamabad;
— Pakistan Medical Council, Islamabad;
— National Health Laboratories, Islamabad;
— Drugs Research Institute, Islamabad;
— School of Tropical Medicine and Ayub Hospital, Dacca;
— Jinnah Post-Graduate Medical Centre, Karachi;
— Pakistan Medical Research Council, Karachi;
— College of Physicians and Surgeons of Pakistan, Karachi;
— Board of Unani and Ayurvedic Systems of Medicine, Rawalpindi;
— Board of Homoeopathic Medicine, Karachi.

All matters relating to labour and manpower, resettlement of displaced

personnel, including demobilized Service personnel, employees' social insurance, and war injuries compensation insurance are dealt with by the Labour and Social Welfare Division. The Division is also concerned with seamen's welfare problems and the institution of social services, and with matters of labour and social research. The National Manpower Council, which works under this Division, is concerned with maximum utilization of human resources in the couutry. The Social Welfare Division co-ordinates social welfare activity at the national level and deals with matters of international importance in this field. Its set-up includes professional elements to deal with country-wide co-ordination, collation, legislation, and international co-operation. It administers a scheme of grants-in-aid to private welfare agencies and universities. It is also responsible for matters relating to emigration for purposes of gainful employment abroad and the protection of the rights and interests of such emigrants.

The Family Planning Division has been assigned the tasks of (i) planning, evaluation, and co-ordination of different aspects of family planning activities in the country; (ii) dealings and agreements with other countries and international organizations in the field of planned parenthood; (iii) international aspects of demography, services and supplies related to planned parenthood; (iv) demography, social science, clinical methods, communications and allied subjects in disciplinary family planning measures, including maintenance of standards, training and education abroad, training and education of foreign nationals in Pakistan; (v) standardization and manufacture of materials used for contraception and maintenance of standards for the import and export of such materials; (vi) research on family planning and allied fields; (vii) maintaining vital demographic statistics. In addition, the Division controls National Family Planning Associations and the Pakistan Family Planning Council.

Civil Service : Both in respect of its mode of recruitment and in its structure and functions, the Civil Service of Pakistan is based essentially on the pattern evolved during the period of British rule in the Subcontinent.

Recruitment : Recruitment to gazetted posts is made by the Central or Provincial Public Service Commission, which holds periodical examinations and interviews for selections to various cadres. To ensure adequate representation of the Provinces and specific areas within the West Pakistan zone, a quota system has been established, with a reservation of 20 per cent of all posts to be filled on the basis of merit only.

After final selection by the appropriate Public Service Commission, appointments are made in the name of the Head of the State (or the Governor in the case of the Provincial Services). A period of probation, from one to two years, follows. The Public Service Commission is consulted in regard to promotions, but appointments to the highest positions, such as those of Secretary and Joint Secretary, are made under orders of the President.

The normal service period expires at the age of 55, after which Government servants are entitled to the benefit of a provident fund and to a pension

for life.

Superior Services : Two distinct cadres constitute the Central Superior Services of Pakistan : (a) All-Pakistan Services which serve both the Central and Provincial Governments and (b) the Central Services whose duties relate only to the Central Government. The CSP (Civil Service of Pakistan) and the PSP (Police Service of Pakistan) are the two All-Pakistan Services.

Members of the Civil Service of Pakistan (CSP) are generally entrusted with administrative posts either in the Secretariat or in the administrative divisions and districts where they represent official authority. They may also be given judicial functions to perform as part of their administrative responsibilities. With increasing awareness of the importance of separating the judiciary from the executive, it was felt that the principle of separation of powers should be duly reflected in the constitution of the Service itself. A judicial branch of the CSP was therefore created with the express provision that one-third of the total number of posts of District and Session Judges, or equivalent categories, should be filled by officers of the CSP; one-third by members of the Provincial Civil (Judicial) Service; and the remaining one-third from the Bar.

The Pakistan Foreign Service is recruited with the Civil Service of Pakistan, but is constituted as a separate cadre. The Foreign Service and Civil Service of Pakistan rank as the two seniormost services, followed by other Superior Services, namely, Pakistan Audit and Accounts Service, Pakistan Taxation Service, Pakistan Excise and Land Customs Service, Central Secretariat Service, Pakistan Military Lands and Cantonments Service, Pakistan Postal Service, and Central Information Service. The last-named was constituted as a distinct cadre in 1965.

Provincial services, which function exclusively under the control of the respective Provincial Governments, are quite separate from the Central Services.

Classification : Public servants are categorized in four different classes. Class I Officers are entrusted with positions of high responsibility and adequate powers to fulfil their particular responsibilities. Class II is the next cadre, and officers appointed in this as well as in Class I are referred to as Gazetted Officers, whose appointment, transfer, promotion and retirement are notified in the Government Gazette. Class III employees generally perform clerical duties. Government servants of Class IV are messengers, *daftaries*, record sorters and the like.

Training : With the emergence of Pakistan as an independent State and the consequent inauguration of large-scale development programmes, the emphasis in the business of administration has shifted to development activity, and the Government has established several institutions to train public servants in different fields of such activities. These include the following :

(a) Administrative Staff College,

(b) Academies for Rural Development,

(c) National Institute of Public Administration (NIPA),
(d) Secretariat Training Institute.

An Administrative Training Council has also been set up to advise on administrative training and to co-ordinate efforts in this respect. It provides both apprenticeship training during the probationary period and in-service training for the senior staff.

Provincial Governments : The Provinces have Governors appointed by the President, who at present are also Zonal Martial Law Administrators.

In the Provincial Secretariat, the counterpart of a Central Division is also headed by a Secretary. A Chief Secretary co-ordinates the activities of all departments of the Provincial Government, assisted by one or more Joint or Additional Chief Secretaries.

The Provincial Government has full executive and legislative authority over the subjects falling within its purview.

All subjects not reserved by the Centre are Provincial subjects, subjects reserved to the Centre being confined to Defence, Foreign Relations, Trade, Communications and Finance. In Provincial matters of agriculture, industry and development planning, the Central Ministries merely assist the Provincial Governments with their advice and guidance. Departments and organizations like the Railways, Pakistan Industrial Development Corporations and Water and Power Development Authorities, which formerly used to be Centrally administered, now operate as a Provincial responsibility in East Pakistan, and on a zonal basis in co-operation with Provincial Government in West Pakistan.

The Provinces, like the Centre, have a consolidated fund, make their own budgets and are responsible for receipt and disbursement of their own revenues. The Centre augments these with proportionate grants from its own funds.

Administrative Divisions : For purposes of administration, the Provinces are divided into Divisions, and Divisions into districts. These are placed under the executive control of officers of appropriate rank and authority. In matters of general administration, maintenance of law and order, internal security and collection of revenue, the Commissioners of Divisions and the Deputy Commissioners (or Collectors) of Districts exercise full authority, being responsible only to the Provincial Government. In East Pakistan, Districts are divided into sub-divisions and *thanas*, while in West Pakistan, *tehsil* units are generally administered by *tehsildars* and *naib-tehsildars*, though in Sind there are sub-divisions, and *tehsils* are under the charge of *mukhtiarkars*.

In recent years, attempts have been made to bring about a decentralization of authority and to place more and more powers in the hands of local authorities in the form of Basic Democracies. This system has, however, come in for considerable criticism, and has been discontinued by the Provincial Governments since June 1971.

Foreign Relations

PAKISTAN's foreign policy has now for some years been based on a flexible realism that combines national interests, in the geopolitical environment that they face, with mutual respect for sovereignty and territorial integrity, non-aggression, and non-interference in each others internal affairs. In these years, Pakistan has succeeded in maintaining its independence of action in bilateral relationships, together with non-involvement in the rivalries of the Big Powers. It has established closer ties with the Muslim World and Afro-Asian States in general, as well as with Iran and Turkey, in particular, through the regional association of RCD. It has observed strict adherence to the UN Charter, and given full support to the cause of non-discrimination and equality among all peoples of the World.

In the words of President Yahya Khan, addressing the Iranian Parliament on October 13, 1969, "Through a process of evolution, we have settled down to a policy of bilateralism, which, in essence, means the conduct of our relations with other countries on the basis of mutuality of interests, independent of our and their relations with third countries. This policy also postulates staying out of the rivalries of the Great Powers."

In pursuit of these objectives, Pakistan has readjusted its relations with all Powers, big and small, progressively normalizing relations with Socialist States—in particular, China and the Soviet Union—as well as re-orienting old alliances, promoting former positive contacts and seeking out new possibilities of bilateral co-operation. By its independent stand on world issues within and outside the United Nations, Pakistan's prestige has been enhanced, and in the comity of nations it can be sure of due con-

sideration of its views from a wide range of different nations, even though support may not be forthcoming from all.

Pakistan's foreign policy has also tried to achieve the twin-objective of supporting both its security and its development. As the two wings of Pakistan are separated by over 1,000 miles of Indian territory, and it has to defend its eight frontiers against heavy odds, the territorial integrity of the country has been a major factor in shaping Pakistan's policy since its inception. On the other hand, the planned development of the country's economy and the satisfaction of at least a modicum of the rising expectations of its people also demand the development of relationships that will promote its foreign trade as well as expand its resources of foreign aid and loans. For the first, Pakistan has given up relying on the alliances it once thought were the answer to its problems; and for the second, it has diversified both its trade and other international economic relations.

Relationships with Big Powers : In this age of rapid communications, no country can afford to remain isolated, much less a developing nation with limited resources. Pakistan has the unique distinction of being surrounded by three of the World's largest nations—China, the Soviet Union, and India—and it must find an equation with these big neighbours as well as with the United States of America, which has global interests and remains by far the largest source of international aid. In line with its basic policy, Pakistan endeavours to maintain cordial relations with all the Big Powers, without compromising its independence of action or sovereignty. To achieve this aim, Pakistan relies not on expediency, but on stable factors that can be expected to hold, so long as Pakistan carries out the delicate undertaking with integrity, honesty and wisdom.

China: Among Pakistan's big neighbours, China is the biggest Power in Asia. The areas which today constitute Pakistan and China have centuries-old ties which were temporarily snapped only after the advent of Western colonialism in Asia. With the rise to power of the People's Republic of China in 1949, it became imperative for Pakistan to establish friendly relations with its northern neighbour. Pakistan extended early recognition to Peking, and championed its cause in the United Nations. On May 21, 1971, Pakistan's Foreign Office celebrated the 20th Anniversary of the establishment of diplomatic relations with the People's Republic of China, and on this occasion Chinese Ambassador Chang Tung hailed the two countries' "friendship based on sincerity" Similar anniversary celebrations were held in China with great enthusiasm.

However, earlier relations between the two countries remained formal for a decade and a half, and during the Korean war in 1950-51, they were even somewhat strained. Thereafter, the first steps towards better mutual understanding were taken at the Bandung Conference in April 1955, where the Prime Ministers of China and Pakistan met. These were followed up by a cordial exchange of visits between the Premiers of the two countries in 1956. And in January 1961, President Ayub told a press conference at



Chairman Mao Tse-Tung receiving President Yahya Khan on his visit to Peking in November 1970.

Bonn that Pakistan's relations with China "... are normal. We have diplomatic relations with each other and we have no problems. There is a certain undefined border between China and Pakistan, and we have asked them to define it, and indications are that they are willing to do so." Less than 16 months later, on May 3, 1962, China and Pakistan formally agreed to hold boundary negotiations.

On March 2, 1963, these negotiations had been completed in a spirit of good neighbourliness and accommodation, and the Sino-Pakistan Boundary Agreement was signed. This Agreement proved to be the foundation-stone of a new era of Sino-Pakistan cordiality, expressing itself in the development of civil aviation, trade relations, economic co-operation, and cultural exchanges between the two countries. The air agreement, in accordance with which a PIA service was started in 1964 between Dacca-Canton-Shanghai, was basically a commercial proposition; but it also afforded the means of closer contact and a new link for China with the outside world. The year 1963 further saw the conclusion of a mutual trade agreement. In July 1964, Pakistan's Commerce Minister visited China and the Chinese Government offered an interest-free loan of $ 60 million to cover the purchase

of items that Pakistan might wish to import from China. The repayment was to be spread over an extended period and made in the form of Pakistani goods.

Thereafter the trade protocol signed in 1966 has enlarged the two-way traffic of goods, and since then the scope of bilateral co-operation in industrial, technological, cultural and socio-economic fields has been expanding steadily. In August 1967, Peking offered to supply 100,000 tons of rice to help Pakistan tide over its food deficit; and following the visit of a Chinese trade delegation to Pakistan in October of the same year, in December 1968 China extended a trade credit of Rs. 200 million to Pakistan. In August 1969, the reopening of the famous 'Silk Route', which had been closed for 22 years, forged yet another trade link between the two countries. This was further strengthened in February 1971 by the completion of the Karakorum Highway between Gilgit and the Chinese border, built with generous Chinese co-operation and replacing the traditional caravan pathway, over some of the world's most difficult terrain, with a 'broadway of friendship'. It is anticipated that at least Rs. 2,000 million worth of Chinese exports would pass through Karachi after entering Pakistan *via* the new Highway. As a result of these cumulative measures, Pakistan's exports to China have increased from Rs. 46.3 million in 1955/56 to more than Rs. 138 million in 1969/70, while imports from China to Pakistan have, over about the same period, moved up eight-fold from Rs. 19.8 million in 1955/56 to about Rs. 159 million in 1968/69, before being temporarily reduced to Rs. 94.6 million in 1969/70 but rising again in the six-month period of July-December 1970 to Rs. 86.3 million. During 1969/70, a number of new trade agreements have been signed; and by way of barter, Pakistan imported 350,000 tons of coal from China against the export of cotton and jute in both raw and finished forms. In April 1970, an agreement was signed for Chinese assistance in the field of mining, industry, transport and communications; and in May of the same year a pact was agreed for the exchange of goods worth Rs. 116 million, followed by another commodity deal for the import of 100,000 tons of Chinese rice for East Pakistan.

Under negotiations started in December 1967, China has also assisted in the construction of Pakistan's first heavy mechanical complex at Taxila, 20 miles from Rawalpindi, which started trial production towards the end of 1970 and is to go into full production by 1975, with an annual output worth Rs. 61 million (also see chapter on Industry). In March of the same year, the Chinese Minister for Economic Relations, Fang Yi, inaugurated East Pakistan's first ordnance factory, which was set up with Chinese assistance. Finally, towards the end of 1970, in November, China has agreed to provide an interest-free loan of 500 million yuans (Rs. 1,000 million), repayable over a period of 20 years, for Pakistan's Fourth Five-Year Plan, and has also shown sympathetic interest in the vital scheme of flood control in East Pakistan.

Besides forging closer economic links, the two countries are also developing their cultural contacts while maintaining sound political relations. Since the signing of an annual cultural exchange agreement in September

1967, over 50 cultural delegations have been exchanged between them. A goodwill mission, headed by the Chief of Staff of the Pakistan Army, participated in the 20th Anniversary Celebrations of the founding of the People's Republic of China, held in October 1969. This was followed by Vice-Chairman Kuo Mo-jo's visit to Pakistan in March 1970, reciprocated by Pakistan's Air Chief Marshal A. Rahim Khan's visit to China in June 1970, which in turn was followed by a friendship delegation led by the Governor of the Panjab, Lt.-Gen. Attiqur Rehman, to the 21st Anniversary Celebrations of China in October 1970. Then, in November 1970, President Yahya Khan visited China, making new contributions to the consolidation and development of friendly relations between the two countries. In response to the invitation extended by President Yahya on this occasion, Premier Chou En-lai indicated that he would be glad to visit Pakistan at the earliest possible opportunity.

In the field of its political relations with China, Pakistan has cause for particular satisfaction in respect to various positive developments. Before the Sino-Pakistan border agreement, the Chinese had taken a neutral position on Kashmir, calling it a disputed area. After the boundary agreement, they have come out fully in support of Pakistan's stand on Kashmir. In the Ayub-Chou Joint Communique of February 1964, China unequivocally supported the Kashmiris' right of self-determination. The Pakistan-China Joint Communique of March 1965 expressed concern at the unresolved Kashmir dispute and declared that the two countries considered its existence a threat to peace and security in the region. The people of Pakistan will always remember, with deep gratitude, the resolute support given by the People's Republic of China when India launched its aggression against Pakistan in September 1965. On September 5, 1965, the Chinese Foreign Minister, Marshal Chen Yi, addressing a press conference at Karachi, expressed "complete sympathy and support for Kashmir's just struggle". It is also believed that a Chinese ultimatum to India helped to keep the Indo-Pakistan armed clash of 1965 almost entirely confined to West Pakistan. Steadfastly maintaining its support for Pakistan's position on Kashmir, China in April 1971 again assured the Government and the people of Pakistan of its resolute support in their just struggle to safeguard national independence and sovereignty against any aggression and interference in East Pakistan. Premier Chou En-lai has specifically declared that "should the Indian expansionists dare to launch an aggression against Pakistan, the Chinese Government and people will, as always, firmly support the Pakistan Government and people in their just struggle to safeguard state sovereignty and national independence."

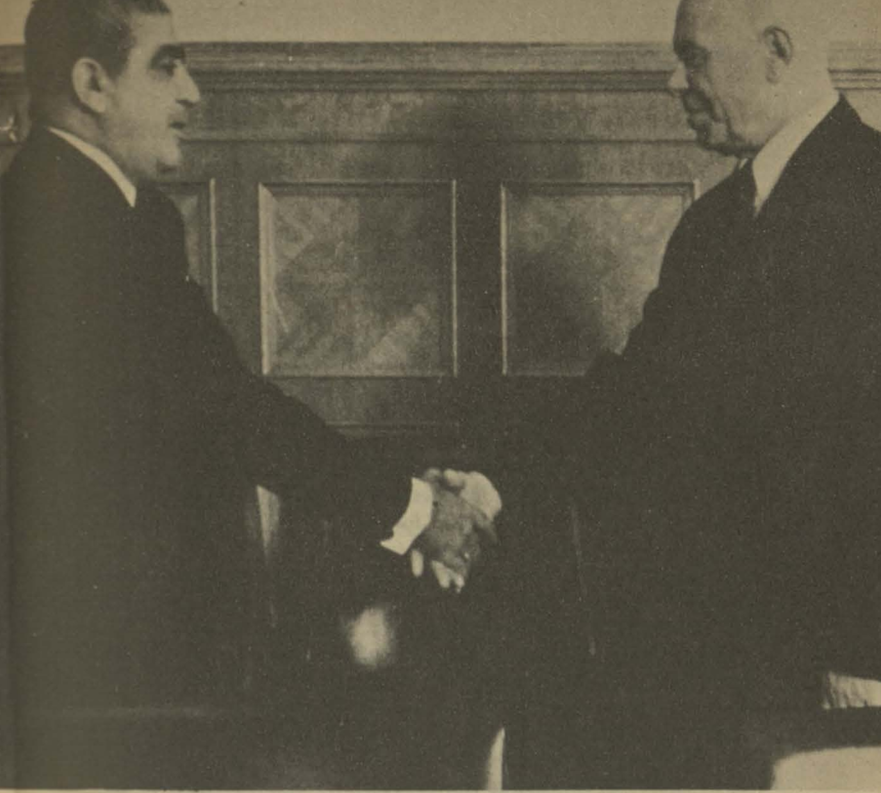
On its side, Pakistan does not subscribe to the myth of 'two Chinas', and has clearly proclaimed its viewpoint at every opportunity in various international forums. Pakistan has continued to strongly advocate China's entry into the United Nations, both within and outside its councils. At the UN General Assembly in November 1970 Pakistan again co-sponsored, together with 17 other delegations, a resolution for the restoration of China's lawful rights by a simple majority vote. This year, on November 20, China

for the first time secured a simple majority vote in favour of its recognition; but as the Assembly upheld the requirement of a two-third majority, it, for the twentieth time in 21 years, refused to admit the People's Republic of China into the UN. In comparison with 48 countries voting in favour of recognition in 1969, 51 countries voted for recognition in 1970, with 49 voting against (compared to 56 in 1969) and 25 abstaining (compared to 21 in 1969). And at the 25th Commemorative Session of the UN in 1970, President Yahya Khan, on October 22, made an impassioned appeal for China's entry into the fold of the world organization. Pakistan's forthright and firm support on this issue has been duly acknowledge and appreciated by China.

Summing up the nature of the cordial relations between China and Pakistan, President Yahya Khan, speaking at a dinner given to visiting Vice-Chairman Kuo Mo-jo at Islamabad on March 11, 1970, described the Sino-Pakistan friendship as a model which could be emulated by other countries in the region, and stressed that it stood for regional stability.

USSR: In the earlier period of Pakistan's foreign policy, its relations with the Soviet Union had been rather cool—at the very beginning marked, on the one hand, by Soviet support for India, and on the other, by the distinct preference Liaquat Ali Khan gave in 1949 to Truman's invitation to visit the United States over Stalin's to visit the Soviet Union, although the latter preceded the former. A change in this situation began to take place already in 1956, following the Bandung Conference of 1955. On February 7, 1956, the Soviet Prime Minister, Marshal Bulganin, offered economic and technical co-operation to Pakistan, which was reiterated the following month by Foreign Minister Molotov, with the specific proposal of assisting Pakistan in building a steel mill—incidentally, a proposal which, has come to fruition in 1969/70 (see chapter on Industry). Then even more significantly, during his visit to Karachi, First Soviet Deputy Premier Mikoyan declared on March 25, 1956, that "the problem of Kashmir should be decided by the will of the people", although only three months earlier both Khrushchev and Marshal Bulganin had quite clearly supported India's stand on Kashmir. But in the circumstances of the world political alignments of the time, Pakistan was unable to take full advantage of these opportunities for developing economic and trade relations with the Soviet Union, despite the signing of some trade pacts.

The first tangible change towards improved relations occurred at the end of 1960. In response to a Soviet offer to assist Pakistan with its oil and gas prospecting, Zulfiqar Ali Bhutto, then Minister for Natural Resources, Fuel and Power, led a Pakistani delegation to Moscow, which started talks there on December 24, 1960. Following up on accord reached at these talks, the Soviet Union and Pakistan signed an agreement on March 4, 1961, providing a $ 30 million Soviet loan to Pakistan for oil and gas prospecting Later, on October 7, 1963, Pakistan also signed an air agreement with the Soviet Union, and PIA flights to Moscow were started in 1964. These gradual changes in Pak-Soviet relations reached their major turning-



President Nikolai Podgorny of the USSR receiving President Yahya Khan at the Kremlin in June, 1970.

point when Pakistan's President visited the Kremlin in April 1965. Apart from dispelling residual suspicions, establishing new contacts, and paving way for a new trade pact and a fresh Soviet credit of $ 30 million, this visit of President Ayub was also followed by a visible change in the Soviet attitude to the Subcontinent, and in particular towards the Kashmir issue.

It was thus in 1965 that the USSR for the first time offered to mediate in Indo-Pakistan disputes; and following the Indo-Pakistan armed conflict of September 1965, sponsored the Tashkent Declaration of India and Pakistan in January 1966. In subsequent years, Pak-Soviet co-operation has continued to grow in both scope and depth; and in conformity with this, Premier Alexei Kosygin in April 1971 sent a message to President Yahya Khan again expressing Soviet willingness to help find a settlement between India and Pakistan.

On President Ayub's second visit to the Soviet Union in September 1967, the sound base for co-operation set up in 1965 was strengthened and expanded. Moscow proposed a substantial increase in economic co-operation and trade extending up to 1975. The two countries adopted a common stand on the Middle East events of May-June 1967; and since then have both continued to maintain that Israel should honour the UN Resolution of 1967 and vacate occupied Arab territories. Both stressed the need to strengthen the UN's effectiveness as an instrument for the maintenance of international peace and security. Pakistan threw its weight on the side of the right of the Vietnamese to decide their own future without outside interference. The Soviet Union showed increased appreciation of Pakistan's viewpoint on major Indo-Pakistan disputes, and acknowledged Pakistan's genuine desire to have peaceful bilateral relations with all neighbours without affecting its ties with others.

A notable feature of Soviet interest in the Subcontinent has emerged in the form of a strong concern for its uninterrupted development. In relation to Pakistan, long-term trade agreements initiated in 1965, together with other forms of economic co-operation, were consolidated in 1967/68, and a trade pact signed in February 1968 envisaged an over-all trade turnover of Rs. 300 million, with Pakistani exports to the Soviet Union including a 50 per cent share of manufactured and semi-manufactured goods. As a result of these developments, trade between the two countries has increased by about 17 times since 1956/57, when exports and imports between them amounted to no more than Rs. 7 million each way. Thus in 1969/70 trade between the two countries amounted to Rs. 108.3 million for exports from Pakistan to the Soviet Union and Rs. 135.2 million for Soviet imports into Pakistan.

In January 1969, the two countries signed a barter agreement to continue their co-operation in oil and gas prospecting through 1969-71, including provision for completing the exploration of promising areas and deposits. Subsequently, in October 1970, a new agreement was signed, under which the Soviet Union will also help Pakistan in its prospecting for solid minerals.

Among other specific projects of economic co-operation carried out in recent years, the following are particularly notable. The Soviet Union has assisted Pakistan in building the Ghorasal Power Station in East Pakistan and the Gudu Power Station in West Pakistan. A 500-kw power transmission line, extending over 1,010 km, is being built with Soviet assistance in West Pakistan, and when completed will connect the biggest power projects in the northern region with southern industrial centres. The Soviet Union has agreed to assist Pakistan in setting up two electrical engineering complexes, each with an annual production capacity of 10,000 tons, with one situated at Chittagong and the other at Taxila. And quite recently, the Soviet Union has undertaken to provide technical and economic assistance for setting up a Steel Mill near Karachi. In non-industrial economic fields : Soviet scientists have provided useful data for the development of Pakistan's marine fish resources in the Arabian Sea; the import of various types of improved seeds was negotiated, together with the import of new

agricultural tractors and implements; and the Soviet Union has indicated its willingness to help Pakistan build a new harbour at Gwadur.

At present there are over 30 projects under various stages of implementation in Pakistan for which the Soviet Union has provided both technical assistance and loans and credits, which are repayable at a moderate 2.5 per cent annual interest in 12 years. Repayment, as before, is generally to be made in the form of Pakistani goods, largely comprised of jute, cotton and wool.

Another kind of link in the chain of growing relations was fashioned when two ships of the Soviet Navy for the first time visited Pakistan in 1968. This was followed up by a high-powered military delegation led by General Yahya Khan, then Commander-in-Chief of the Pakistan Army, visiting Moscow in July 1968. At this time it appeared that the Soviet Union might sell some arms on credit to Pakistan to help it fill certain gaps in its defence. At this, a campaign of protests was sparked off in India, which saw its Sub-continental monopoly on Soviet arms threatened by this possibility.

Cultural contacts between Pakistan and Russia—which in the Asian parts of the Soviets go back to many a century ago—have in recent years also been growing and are now organized on a regular basis, in conformity with an accord on cultural co-operation signed in 1965, followed up by a new agreement in April 1968 for cultural, educational and scientific exchanges and a similar one in June 1970. Under these programmes, cultural delegations and performances, scholars and writers, film exhibitions, representatives of women's organizations and sports teams have been exchanged. Included in the scientific exchanges have been several delegations of farm specialists, cotton growers, soil specialists, melioration experts, forestry specialists and cattle-breeders. The number of Soviet publications on Pakistan and books by Pakistani authors translated into various Soviet languages and widely circulated in the Soviet Union has been growing. On the other hand, English, Urdu and Bengali translations of Soviet publications are widely available in Pakistan.

Recent continuing and fruitful exchanges of visits at the highest governmental level have included Soviet Premier Alexei Kosygin's visit to Pakistan in April 1968 and May 1969, followed by President Yahya Khan's visit to the USSR in June 1970. In a joint communique issued at the conclusion of President Yahya's visit, the Soviet Union agreed to provide economic and technical assistance for Pakistan's Fourth Five-Year Plan over and above a promised credit of $200 million to finance the cost of machinery and other equipment for the Karachi Steel Mill to be set up at Buleji (see chapter on Industry).

U.S.A.: The United States showed a keen interest in Pakistan's problems at a time when it was in dire need of economic and military aid for development and defence. Relations between the two countries grew steadily after the United States had helped to stave off Pakistan's food crisis in 1953. In 1954 the Mutual Defence Assistance Agreement was signed; later Pakistan entered the South-East Asia Treaty Organization (SEATO) and the Central



President Yahya Khan with President Nixon at the White House, Washington, on October 25, 1970.

Treaty Organization (CENTO—at first called the Baghdad Pact) sponsored by the United States recognizing its defence perimeter to extend from the Far East to Europe. This alignment brought the first chapter of Pakistan's neutral foreign policy to a close, but the country became able to strengthen its defensive capacity.

Yet, Pakistan chiefly needed a defensive shield against India, not against China and Russia; whereas it was these two Powers that figured prominently in American global strategy. This divergence of interests was brought into sharp focus after the Sino-Indian conflict of 1962. The United States began to provide substantial arms aid to India to the detriment of the military balance in the Subcontinent, thus exposing Pakistan to new threats. In spite of Pakistan's efforts to maintain a balance between its growing friendship with China and its loyalty to its Western ally, by the year 1965, US-Pakistan relations had been subjected to great strains, and in the course of this year the United States suspended its economic aid to Pakistan; and later, on the outbreak of the Indo-Pakistan armed conflict, it placed an embargo on the supply of military aid as well.

Then, by the end of the same year, after consultations between the

two Governments, Washington became more appreciative of the fact that Pakistan lay close to three major Powers, and as such could not ignore geo-political compulsions, particularly in the context of Indian hostility towards Pakistan. This realization gave a new dimension to Pakistan-US relations.

A significant indication of the changed attitude of the United States towards Pakistan was the short but purposeful visit of President Johnson to this country on December 23, 1967, stopping over at Karachi on his return journey from Australia. He conferred with the President of Pakistan on matters of mutual interest, including relations between India and Pakistan. The two Presidents reviewed the world situation and discussed Pakistan's additional needs of food and development. Soon afterwards, a PL-480 agreement to supply Pakistan with 500,000 tons of US wheat and other items valued at $ 40 million was signed. Payment was stipulated in Pakistani currency. In February 1968, an investment and trade mission from the United States visited Pakistan and brought over 150 proposals for trade and joint ventures. In the meantime, US commodity and project aid, which had been frozen since 1965, began to flow again. In March 1968, an agreement was signed under which Pakistan was to get commodity aid worth $ 115 million by the end of the fiscal year 1967/68. The United States also agreed to resume project aid to the extent of $ 20 to $ 25 million. On May 16, 1968, another agreement was signed for the supply of 400,000 tons of US wheat, in addition to the 1.75 million tons of food-grains supplied since May 1967. To date, US aid to Pakistan (including PL-480 aid) since 1950 amounts to over $ 4,000 million; of which aid pledged during the Third Plan amounted to over $ 521 million.

It is from the United States, too, that Pakistan imports by far the largest single share of goods, valued at Rs. 1,371.4 million in 1969/70. As against this, valued at Rs. 373.1 million in 1969/70, Pakistan's exports to the United States are low; but the United States still is the largest importer of Pakistani goods, having gone ahead of the Uunited Kingdom in 1969/70.

President Nixon's visit to Pakistan and his talks with President Yahya Khan in May and August 1969 helped to re-express the cordial relationship that exists between the two countries, despite some past misunderstandings and occasional fluctuations in the aid climate. This has been manifested in the many loan agreements that have been signed between the United States and Pakistan this year. They include the agreement to provide $ 750,000 to help finance the construction of a canal linking the Meghna and Ghasiakhali rivers in the Khulna District signed in June 1969 ; a PL-480 supplementary agreement of $ 23 million for the supply of 40,000 tons of Soyabean and/or cotton-seed oil to Pakistan signed in July 1969; a new $3 million US loan to finance the dollar costs of a number of studies, including feasibility, industrial sectoral market and other studies; a $ 20 million US loan agreement for the supply of more than 200,000 tons of chemical fertilizers, signed by Pakistan and a US-AID Mission on November 20,1969. Under another agreement, the US was to contribute $ 7.5 million in grants and $ 2.5 million in loans to the Indus Basin Development Fund. An agreement for oil exploration between Pakistan and the

American International Oil Company was also arrived at during the same year. Including a programme loan agreement of Rs. 95 million for industrial raw materials signed in July 1970, United States' commodity loan authorizations (including food) over the year 1969/70 come to more than Rs. 930 million.

Following his participation in the 1970 UN Commemorative Session, President Yahya Khan also went to Washington, where he had talks with President Nixon on October 25, 1970, including an exchange of views on economic issues and on Kashmir, Farakka and the Middle East, as well as on the United States' decision to sell certain types of arms to Pakistan.

More recently, despite some unfortunate statements by responsible Americans in relation to Pakistan's national crisis of March/April 1971, and the Senate Foreign Relations Committee's recommendation in May 1971 that aid to Pakistan should be suspended—which naturally hurt Pakistani sensibilities—basically both countries continue to show a practical interest in maintaining friendly ties on principles of equality, respect for sovereignty and mutuality of interests. On May 21, 1971, the US State Department affirmed that the United States was continuing with its economic assistance to Pakistan; and at his press conference on May 24, 1971, President Yahya Khan indicated that President Nixon had written him a very cordial personal letter, offering the full assistance of his Government in meeting requirements of relief and rehabilitation in East Pakistan and expressing full confidence that President Yahya Khan would be able to handle the crisis facing Pakistan.

United Kingdom: As a result of their historical links, including a long period of British colonial rule which ended only in August 1947, Pakistan's relations with the United Kingdom have certain special features—not least of which are the series of contacts provided by the English language, at various levels, and the similarities of approach and practice in such fields as education, administration and legal system, the Armed Forces, and even certain aspects of politics. When Pakistan became a republic on March 23, 1956, it continued to remain a member of the Commonwealth, of which the Queen, as the symbol of the free association of its independent member nations, is the symbolic Head. In addition to the Commonwealth link, the two countries are also associated in such alliances as the Colombo Plan (which though originating through the Commonwealth Consultative Committee, includes the participation of several countries which are not members of it), CENTO and SEATO. Despite some Pakistani misgivings about the Boundary Awards of 1947, and occasional subsequent misunderstandings, Pakistan consistently valued the friendship and co-operation of the United Kingdom, which, on its side, also continued to uphold the principle of self-determination for the people of Kashmir.

Thus Britain played a prominent part in the resolution of the Indo-Pakistan dispute on the Rann of Kutch. On the outbreak of the armed conflict of September 1965, despite a declared policy of neutrality and a subsequent stoppage of all aid to both countries for the duration of the

conflict, British Prime Minister Wilson on September 6, 1965, said: "I am deeply concerned at the increasingly serious fighting now taking place between India and Pakistan, and especially at the news that Indian Forces have today attacked Pakistan territory across the international frontier in Panjab. This is a distressing response to the resolution by the Security Council on September 4, calling for a cease-fire." And in 1971, concerning the March/April national crisis of Pakistan, while some statements, as in the case of the United States, seemed to reflect an unsympathetic attitude, the British Government categorically stated that this was an internal affair of Pakistan in which there was no question of any British interference. In a House of Commons debate on May 15, the Minister for Overseas Development, Richard Wood, refusing to accept an opposition suggestion that British economic aid to Pakistan should be stopped, said, "I profoundly disagree that it (aid) can be used as a lever to enforce a particular solution which observers here thousands of miles from Dacca and Islamabad, with knowledge that must be incomplete, may wrongly think will contribute to peace."

In the economic field, during the Third Plan period, Britain pledged aid amounting to over $ 159 million. Included in the assistance received from the United Kingdom are interest-free loans amounting to £ 8 million; and British loans provided for the Indus Basin project have all been made on soft terms. More recently, in 1970, Britain agreed to provide interest-free loans amounting to £ 6 million (Rs. 68.5 million) for non-project aid and £ 1,545,000 for the Tarbela Dam (£1.2 million, bringing total British aid for it to £ 5.35 million) .and power distribution equipment for EPWAPDA (£345,000). These loans are part of a total pledge of £ 10 million Britain made

President Yahya Khan receiving British Premier Edward Heath on his arrival at Islamabad Airport on January 8, 1971.



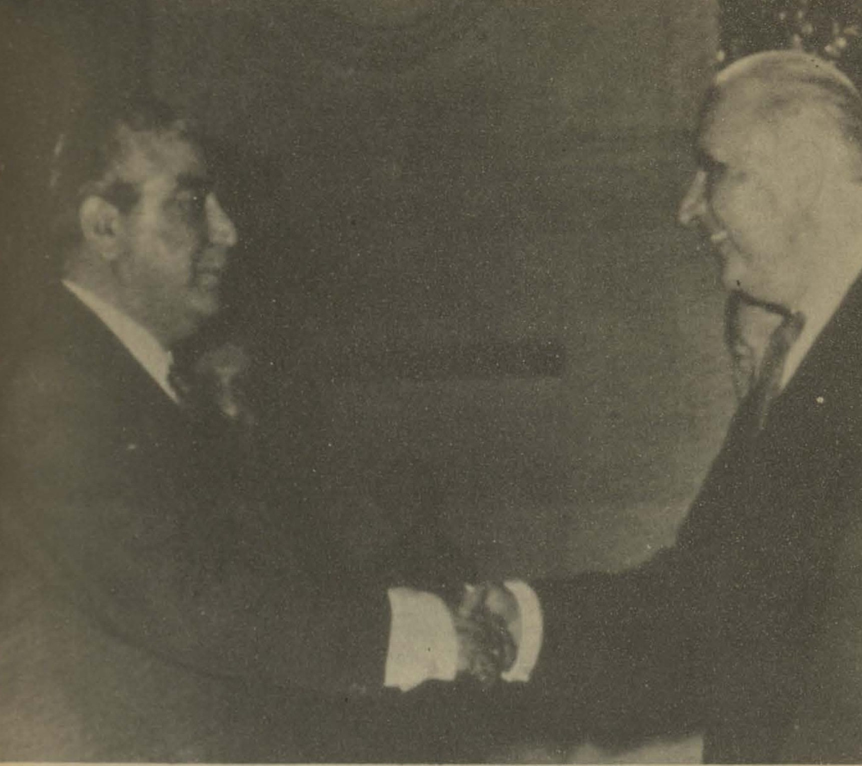
at the Pakistan Consortium meeting in July 1970 for the first year of the Fourth Plan. In addition, following up on extensive emergency assistance provided for the cyclone-affected areas of East Pakistan (see relevant section in chapter on Social Welfare), British Premier Edward Heath, early in January 1971, announced at Rawalpindi that Britain would also furnish a £ 2 million interest-free loan towards the reconstruction programme in these areas. Prime Minister Heath came to Pakistan for an official two-day visit on January 8, stopping on his way to the Commonwealth Conference at Singapore.

As is to be expected from the traditionally established trade link between the two countries, Britain has been the largest importer of Pakistani goods—except last year, when the United States went slightly ahead, the value of Pakistani exports to Britain having dropped from Rs. 386.7 million in 1968/69 to Rs. 370.8 million in 1969/70. For the same years, the value of Pakistani imports from Britain increased from Rs. 555.2 million to Rs. 580 million, although Britain dropped from the second to the third largest exporter to Pakistan, following the United States and Western Germany.

However, if Britain finally joins the European Economic Community (EEC), in keeping with its decisions of 1967, Pakistan's goods—which now enter the British market almost free of duty—may well be subjected to a unifrom EEC import duty. The Government of Pakistan has therefore informed the British Government of its concern on this, and has suggested that reasonable guarantees be given to guard the interests of old trading partners. At a banquet given in his honour by President Yahya Khan on January 8, 1971, Prime Minister Heath tried to be reassuring with the following words: "We are certainly not turning our backs on our friends outside Europe. We hope and expect that a more united Western Europe will be better able to contribute to reducing the gap between the rich and the poor countries. And economic growth in Britain, as a result of membership of the European Communities, should create an expanding market for all trading countries, including the developing countries."

A matter of considerable concern in the context of traditional Commonwealth ties is the future of some 200,000 Pakistanis residing in the United Kingdom, particularly after the recent new British Immigration Act. It is to be hoped that the interests of these immigrants and of Pakistani students in Britain will be safeguarded—a hope that also derives some reassurance from the visit a Parliamentary Committee concerned with problems of Pakistani immigrants to Britain made to Pakistan in January 1970. Also speaking of the Bill in his banquet address, Premier Heath said : " But I would like to make it clear that there will be no change of any kind in the rights and standing of those Commonwealth citizens who are already living in Britain. They are full and responsible members of our community and we respect them as such. We are determined that they, and their children, should share unreservedly in the new Britain which we are seeking to build."

France: Following President Charles de Gaulle's successful negotiations with Algeria's National Liberation Front (NLF), reaching accord on Algerian independence in 1961, France and Pakistan's relations too entered a new phase



President Yahya Khan with French President Pompidou at the Elysee Palace, Paris, on October 26, 1970.

of a growing community of interests. These were further advanced by the President of Pakistan's official visit to France in October 1967. In November 1967, President de Gaulle called for "a just and equitable" solution of the Kashmir problem and declared that peace cannot be ensured unless the people's right of self-determination is respected. (It may also be recalled that in September 1965, France had, as a permanent Member of the Security Council, urged that the cause of the Indo-Pakistan conflict be resolved as a logical corollary to the cease-fire). Pakistan and France have similar views on major world issues, notably the war in Viet-Nam, the Middle East crisis and the economic aspirations of the emergent States.

Stopping over in Paris on his return from the UN celebrations at New York, President Yahya Khan on October 26, 1970, had talks with both President Georges Pompidou and Premier Chaban-Delmas, which confirmed their common views on various matters of mutual interest. Some months later, in a meeting with President Yâhya's special envoy, Mian Arshad Husain, in Paris at the end of April 1971, President Pompidou expressed: "...all our sympathy for Pakistan and our strong desire that everything ends for the best on the human, moral and political levels under his (President Yahya's) leadership."

France has endorsed the decisions of the first UNCTAD, and accordingly has in recent years endeavoured to increase its credit to Pakistan and the

volume of its trade with it. Pakistan's exports to France during 1969/70 are valued at Rs. 76.2 million and imports from France at Rs. 139 million. As for aid, Pakistan, has received pledges of aid amounting to $ 71.2 million from France in the five years of the Third Plan, including a Consortium pledge of $ 16.2 million for 1969/70. In addition, France has also pledged $ 35 million for the Tarbela Dam project.

In the course of the year under review, several Pakistani Ministers, including the Ministers of Finance, Commerce, Agriculture, and Education also visited Paris to hold fruitful talks with their French counterparts. From France, several high-powered delegations have visited Pakistan during the last 15 months, up to February 1971, including the visit of former Premier Antoine Pinay, the Chairman of the French Company for the Diffusion of Techniques; the Chief of Economic Affairs from the Foreign Ministry; and the Chief of Staff of the French Armed Forces, General Michel Fourquet, in February 1971.

A technical co-operation agreement with France was signed in June 1970, under which France will furnish technical assistance to Pakistan in the form of training facilities, scholarships and experts, and also equipment for certain development and research projects. This was followed by a cultural accord in the last week of March 1971, providing for wide-ranging contacts in fields of education, science and the arts, under which the two countries will encourage the study of the language, literature and civilization of the other country in its universities and other institutions, and will promote reciprocal visits of cultural, musical and dramatic groups.

West Germany : Another European Power whose economic, cultural and political relations with Pakistan are growing at a rapid pace is West Germany. It is the largest assistance-giving country after the United States in the Aid to Pakistan Consortium. West Germany has pledged aid amounting to $ 188.2 million during the Third Plan period, and an additional $ 50 million for the Tarbela Dam project. The total flow of German capital into Pakistan up to December 1969 exceeds $ 415 million. This contribution has assumed added significance because it has helped to execute a number of big projects in industry and agriculture. For the first year of the Fourth Plan, 1971/72, West Germany in November 1970 agreed to provide a loan of $42 million, at an annual interest rate of 2.5 per cent, repayable over a period of 30 years. This new credit brings total German assistance to $ 639, including technical assistance, under which at the end of 1970, seven projects were in operation and five about ready to start. In the same month, emergency aid amounting to DM 10 million from the Government and DM 2 million from private donations in West Germany were made available for the cyclone-affected areas of East Pakistan.

The identity of outlook between the two countries was brought into sharp focus when the former West German Chancellor, Dr. Kurt Georg Kiesinger, visited Pakistan in November 1967. He took note of the critical state of Indo-Pakistan relations, and expressed concern at the growing military imbalance in the Subcontinent. In the joint communique at the end of his visit, particular stress was laid on abjuring resort to force and applying

the principle of self-determination in resolving international disputes. It was in this context that the Kashmir dispute and the problem of German reunification figured in the communique.

To rectify the present trade imbalance between Pakistan and West Germany (Pakistan's exports to West Germany during 1969/70 amounted Rs. 136.3 million while imports from it stood at Rs. 583.2 million), the Chancellor agreed to institute studies at expert level. He also agreed to intensify economic collaboration by expanding technical, scientific and cultural contacts.

In the last two years, important German visitors to Pakistan included : the German Minister for Federal Affairs, Dr. Carlo Schmid ; the President of the Bundestag, Dr. Eugen Gerstenmaier ; the State Secretary in the German Foreign Ministry, Dr. Rolf Lahr; and a five-member Economic Committee of the German Parliament. From Pakistan, the Food Minister went to Germany to seek further assistance in agriculture, the key sector of Pakistan's economy. In November 1969, Pakistan's Foreign Secretary visited Germany and had talks with Chancellor Willy Brandt, as well as with various Government officials. While these visits have been very fruitful in promoting the growth of economic co-operation, their results continue to be given concrete shape through annual consultations between the two countries. Following up on Pakistan's Foreign Secretary's visit to Bonn in 1969, German Foreign Secretary, Dr. Paul Frank, came to Pakistan in November 1970, heading a high-powered five-member delegation for a three-day visit.

Other Western Countries: Among other Western States which continue to participate in Pakistan's development effort are Canada, which has pledged aid totalling $ 157.5 million during the five years of the Third Plan ; Italy, which has pledged $ 97 million during the same period ; and Belgium, the Netherlands, Sweden and Switzerland, whose respective contributions for the Plan period are $14 million, $ 21.5 million, $ 36 million and $ 30 million. Sweden and Switzerland have both also helped in setting up specialized technical training centres in Pakistan ; and the Swedish International Development Agency's Deputy Director-General, visiting Pakistan in November 1970, indicated possibilities of providing enlarged assistance in the Fourth Plan period for setting up vocational and technical training institutes and for other suitable projects in the social sector.

With most of these countries, Pakistan has developed closer cultural contacts and mutually advantageous trade ties. With Canada in particular —which, after the United States, has provided the largest grant aid—Pakistan has very close and cordial relations. These were further strengthened when Premier Pierre Elliot Trudeau visited Pakistan at the beginning of January 1971, on his way to the Commonwealth Conference at Singapore. During his stay at Karachi, he visited the Karachi Nuclear Power Project (KANUPP) which is being set up with Canadian assistance and is now due to go into operation before the end of 1972. As he was leaving after his four-day visit on January 9, he radioed President Yahya Khan: "As I leave Pakistan, I do so with renewed sense of the warmth with which our two countries and peoples regard one another, of the importance which we both attach to the Common-

wealth and to a peaceful world, and of the determination and energy with which Pakistan is facing the always difficult task of nation-building. "

In 1969/70 major trade transactions with Canada, Belgium, Italy and the Netherlands included the following respective import and export figures : Rs. 187.5 million and Rs. 38.2 million; Rs. 51.4 million and Rs. 90.9 million; Rs. 205.8 million and Rs. 104.3 million, Rs. 72.1 million, and Rs. 73.0 million. Particularly noteworthy here are : a rapid rise in the volume of trade, the trade surplus of Rs. 39.5 million in the case of Belgium, and an even balance in the case of the Netherlands.

Efforts to develop over-all relations with European countries outside the EEC have also made considerable progress. Thus the volume of the trade with member countries of the European Free Trade Association (EFTA established in 1959 and now comprising in addition to the United Kingdom, Austria Denmark, Finland, Liechtenstein, Norway, Portugal, Sweden and Switzerland), excluding the United Kingdom, has more than doubled over the past 10 years. Imports from and exports to these countries have respectively risen from Rs. 61 million in 1959/60 to Rs. 146.6 million and Rs. 79.8 million in 1969/70. Trade with other Western European countries (Greece, Iceland, Ireland and Spain) as a whole has remained largely constant, showing a favourable balance of Rs. 30 million in 1969/70, with exports valued at Rs. 37.8 million and imports at Rs. 6.9 million; but within this over-all situation, exports to Spain have shown a substantial rise from Rs. 19 million in 1959/60 to 28.4 million in 1969/70, with imports for these years amounting to Rs. 7 million and Rs. 6.5 million respectively. Among the EFTA countries, excluding the United Kingdom, major developments in trade have taken place in relation to Switzerland, Sweden, Portugal and Denmark, as can be seen from the following Table:

(Million rupees)

	1959/60		1969/70	
	Exports	Imports	Exports	Imports
Austria	6.0	6.0	3.1	6.7
Denmark	7.0	5.0	11.3	13.4
Finland	1.0	2.0	0.8	6.4
Liechtenstein	—	—	0.001	—
Norway	1.0	15.0	3.2	16.0
Portugal	8.0	2.0	27.6	2.1
Sweden	11.0	10.0	21.2	29.3
Switzerland	1.0	21.0	12.6	72.7
TOTAL	35.0	61.0	79.8	140.6

In addition, developing relations with Denmark and Norway have also led to their pledging aid amounting to $ 2 million and $5.2 million, respectively, during the Third Plan period. More recently, in August 1970, Denmark also offered an interest-free loan of $ 5.2 million, repayable over a period of 25 years.

Eastern Europe : The aid pledged by European Socialist States, including the USSR, during the five years of the Third Plan has risen to about 13 per cent of the entire external assistance as against 5 per cent in the last year of the Second Plan. In the total amount of $ 340.8 million pledged, the largest contribution, after the USSR, has been made by Yugoslavia, totalling $ 120.8 million.

In the sphere of trade, Pakistan's exports to the Socialist States of Europe jumped from a mere Rs. 84 million in 1962/63 to Rs. 412.4 million in 1969/70, and imports from them, from Rs. 87 milion to Rs. 46783 million over the same period. The following Table gives the country-wise figures of trade with Eastern Europe (in million rupee) for 1968/69 and 1969/70 :

Country	1968/69			1969/70		
	Imports	Exports	Balance	Imports	Exports	Balance
Albania	0.04	—	– 0.04	0.9	—	– 0.9
Bulgaria	38.5	22.1	–16.4	21.4	41.2	+19.8
Czechoslovakia	49.3	34.8	–14.5	90.7	37.5	–53.2
Eastern Germany	4.6	0.4	– 4.2	1.1	0.01	– 1.1
Hungary	30.6	15.6	–15.0	17.2	18.1	+ 0.9
Poland	147.9	92.8	–55.1	82.0	113.0	+31.0
Rumania	36.5	26.7	– 9.8	23.1	52.9	+29.8
USSR	141.5	109.1	–32.4	135.2	108.3	–26.9
Yugoslavia	65.4	67.9	+ 2.5	111.4	41.4	–70.0
TOTAL	514.34	369.4	–144.94	483.0	412.4	–70.6

The first notable feature of these figures is that Pakistan has moved towards a favourable trade balance in the case of four countries: Bulgaria, Hungary, Poland and Rumania.

It is also estimated that in the growth of trade with the Socialist States Pakistan's exports to them will continue to increase at the rate of 10 to 12 per cent a year. Recently, new trade and barter agreements have been

concluded with Bulgaria (in July 1970), Czechoslovakia (in September 1970), Hungary (in May 1970), Poland (in February 1971) and Yugoslavia (in April 1971), which will further promote trade with these countries, particularly with Poland and Yugoslavia. Poland is now the seventh largest importer of Pakistani goods, and following the USSR and China, together with Yugoslavia, the biggest trading partner of Pakistan among the Socialist countries.

Along with the expansion of Pakistan's economic ties with East European States, understanding has been growing in other fields also. In October 1967, when Pakistan's President visited Rumania, the principle of self-determination was upheld with special reference to Kashmir. The joint communique issued at the end of the President's visit also urged the peaceful settlement of the Middle East crisis, the banishing of nuclear threats, and the representation of China at the United Nations. It stressed the need to develop bilateral relations irrespective of differences in political systems.

In January 1968, the Yugoslav President, Marshal Tito, paid his first State visit to Pakistan. He expressed the hope that Indo-Pakistan disputes would be resolved in the light of the Tashkent Declaration and that lasting peace would be established in the region to advance the goal of the people's well-being. Pakistan and Yugoslavia called for the immediate withdrawal of Israeli forces from occupied Arab lands, and stressed the urgency of bridging the widening gulf between the affluent and indigent nations of the world. This visit has also served to promote the growth of equitable economic co-operation between Pakistan and Yugoslavia. And when the Vice-President of the Federal Assembly of Yugoslavia, Gustav Vlahov, visited Pakistan in November 1969, yet another link was added to the development of close and mutually beneficial relationships between the two countries.

In October 1970, the President of Poland, Marshal Marian Spychalski, made his first State visit to Pakistan, arriving on October 29 for a stay of five days. On this occasion, apart from fruitful discussions on the growing co-operation between the two countries, Poland and Pakistan signed an air agreement, and welcoming the rapid growth of trade between them in the past two years, considered specific proposals for its augmentation. Poland also indicated its willingness to assist Pakistan in the development of its ship-building industry. In a joint communique issued on November 1, 1970, Pakistan and Poland expressed their support for the struggle of peoples and countries for self-determination, independence and sovereignty against all forms of foreign domination and colonialism.

The visit was, however, cut short by a day on account of a terrible tragedy at the Karachi Airport on November 1, 1970, when an airline catering van suddenly ran into the reception line, causing the death of Polish Deputy Foreign Minister Zygfrid Wolniak and three Pakistanis, and injuring several others, including the Polish Ambassador and the Polish Consul-General in Karachi. Greatly distressed at this news, the President of Pakistan conveyed the deepest sorrow and profound regrets on his own behalf and on behalf of the Government and people of Pakistan. Later the Government of Pakistan invited the Government of Poland to nominate representatives to be associated with the enquiry into the tragedy. This was conducted by a Special Court of

Inquiry appointed by the President of Pakistan, which found that the crime committed was an individual act of the accused, and sentenced him to death. Here it may also be recalled that only two days before his death, it was Deputy Foreign Minister Wolniak, who on October 30, 1970, signed Poland's first air agreement with Pakistan.

The rapid and all-round enlargement of relations with the Socialist States has not only given a meaningful flexibility to the conduct of Pakistan's foreign relations, but has also reduced its dependence on traditional sources, and assured a regular inflow of selective aid for key projects.

The Muslim World : One of the ideological principles of Pakistan's foreign policy, since its very birth, has been to foster closer bonds with all other Muslim countries, and, sharing common Muslim aspirations, to contribute to the fulfilment of universal Islamic ideals. The country's dedication to this principle has been steadfast, despite occasional reappraisals of foreign policy. Pakistan has reiterated its stand by emphasizing the fact that Muslims occupy the land-mass which is the heart of Afro-Asia, from Casablanca to the Pacific. Their problems, hazards and troubles are largely the same. Unless they get together to solve these problems, they will not be able to play the important role which this area once played in world affairs. Recognizing this, Pakistan has contributed to the organization of a number of Islamic conferences; and only two years after its independence, organized the first International Islamic Economic Conference, in November 1949 at Karachi, which was attended by delegates from 18 countries.

The spontaneous world-wide Muslim reaction against the burning of Al-Aqsa Mosque in Israel-occupied Jerusalem in August 1969 has given a new impetus and urgency to the efforts to consolidate the relations of Muslim nations and to make them capable of working in union for common goals and ideals. As a first step in this direction, the heads and representatives of 26 Muslim countries gathered together at Rabat in September 1969 to form and hold the first Islamic Summit Conference. This was followed up by a conference of the Foreign Ministers of Islamic countries in March 1970 at Jeddah, which resolved to meet once every year to exchange views and strengthen co-operation between Muslim countries, and to set up an Islamic Secretariat at Jeddah. The second Islamic Conference of Foreign Ministers was held from December 26 to 28, 1970, at Karachi. Representatives of 23 participating nations were unanimously agreed on the imperative need to strengthen the Islamic front in order to undo Israel's expansionist designs and secure the implementation of the UN Security Council resolutions on Palestine. Condemning Zionist efforts to change the status of Jerusalem, the Conference pledged the Islamic world's moral and material support for the restitution of the rights of Palestinians. Portugal's attack on Guinea was also condemned, and the Security Council was asked to take suitable steps to prevent any further encroachment on the territorial integrity of Guinea.

The Conference confirmed the appointment of Tunku Abdul Rahman (former Prime Minister of Malaysia) as the Secretary-General of the proposed Islamic Secretariat, and decided to hold the third Islamic Conference of



President Yahya Khan addressing the Conference of Islamic Foreign Ministers at Karachi in December 1970.

Foreign Ministers at Kabul in September 1971. In addition, the Conference also agreed in principle (a) that an International Muslim Bank for Trade and Development should be established to facilitate the growth of economic and commercial collaboration among participating countries and (b) that a World Muslim News Agency should be set up which, apart from performing the general functions of a news agency, would in particular assure a world-wide objective coverage of Muslim affairs.

Earlier on, in October 1970, Muslim leaders from 25 countries met at Bandung to review possibilities of closer co-operation among the World's 700 million Muslims and of upholding their rights in countries where they form minorities. Concluding with a 20-point resolution on October 10, the Conference officially announced the formation of an International Islamic Organization to replace the Afro-Asian Islamic Organization. The new body is to be chaired by Pakistan assisted by four Vice-Chairmen from Indonesia, Nigeria, Syria, and West Germany.

The volume of Pakistan's trade with Muslim countries has expanded steadily, doubling over the last 10 years from about Rs. 437 million (exports

Rs. 123 million and imports 314 million) in 1959/60 to about Rs. 894 million (exports Rs. 442 million and imports Rs. 472 million) in 1969/70. Particularly noticeable in these figures is the rapid growth of exports, which have increased by well over 240 per cent as against an increase of about 50 per cent for imports, thus bringing about a nearly even balance of trade.

Iran and Turkey : Pakistan's endeavours to establish stronger and more effective ties with other Muslim countries have also found specific practical expression in the establishment of the Regional Co-operation for Development (RCD), which since July 1964 has linked Pakistan with Iran and Turkey in a new and dynamic partnership. In the past six years, this association has taken big strides towards realizing its objectives of close collaboration in all spheres—socio-cultural as well as economic. The first year of its existence was devoted to identifying the spheres of tripartite co-operation and preparing the groundwork for it. Particular attention was focussed on developing intra-regional means of communication, reducing postal and telegraph rates, co-ordinating banking and insurance operations, establishing joint chambers of trade and commerce, drawing up plans for joint industrial ventures, promoting cultural ties and tourism, and fostering technical co-operation. RCD has achieved tangible results in these fields, which are summarized in the chapter on International Economic Co-operation.

The RCD Secretariat and its various organs are now functioning smoothly. Seven committees have been set up to co-ordinate activities. The RCD Chamber of Commerce and Industry, which covers a market of 185 million people, has got into its stride. In the industrial field, out of some 55 approved joint projects, 13 have started production, while seven were under various stages of completion in 1970 and due to begin operating by the end of this year or shortly thereafter. After the signing of the Agreement on the RCD Union for Multilateral Payments in 1967 and the establishment of a joint shipping service, new vistas of trade expansion have opened. The implementation of rail and road projects, especially the Turkey-Iran rail link and the RCD Highway, linking Ankara, Tehran and Karachi, will also help to dismantle artificial trade barriers, while the Dacca session of the RCD Ministerial Council has already recommended the promotion of preferential trade arrangements and the progressive removal of barriers. The technical co-operation programme is also in full swing, providing a variety of training facilities to all member States.

Trade between Pakistan and its RCD partners has been expanding steadily. On September 3, 1968, an RCD agreement on trade between Iran, Pakistan and Turkey was signed, whose main provision is that the contracting parties should grant each other, on the basis of full reciprocity, the benefits of a most-favoured nation treatment in the matter of import and export of goods. This agreement replaces the previous bilateral trade agreements between the RCD member countries. The Agreement on the RCD Union for Multilateral Payments concluded between Iran, Pakistan



The Shahinshah of Iran receiving President Yahya Khan on his arrival at Mehrabad Airport on October 29, 1969.

and Turkey on April 25, 1967, continues in force.

Latest figures indicate that exports from Pakistan to Turkey have increased from Rs. 3 million in 1963/64 to Rs. 19.8 million in 1969/70. During the same period, imports from Turkey have gone up from an insignificant amount to Rs. 14 million. Exports from Pakistan to Iran have risen from Rs. 10 million in 1963/64 to Rs. 25.7 million in 1969/70, although imports have dropped from Rs. 168 million to Rs. 120.6 million, largely because of a reduction in the import of refined and other mineral oils.

On October 29, 1969, President Yahya Khan arrived at Tehran for a six-day official visit to Iran, and a significant outcome of his talks with the Shah of Iran is their decision to establish a joint Iran-Pakistan oil company for oil prospecting and exploitation in Iran. They also agreed that Iran would be a partner in the new Pakistani oil refineries and would assist in the expansion of existing refineries in this country. This was followed up by the signing of a memorandum of understanding, containing the principles of co-operation in oil activities, at Tehran on February 3, 1971. This memorandum showed accord on the principle of forming a joint Iran-Pakistan Corporation, whose objectives will include but not be limited to crude oil transactions, refining, transportation, and such other petroleum activities as may be agreed from time to time between the two countries. A definitive agreement is now in the process of being worked out.

On December 25, 1969, the Third RCD Summit Conference was held at Karachi. It was attended by the Shah of Iran, the President of Pakistan

and the Prime Minister of Turkey. They reviewed and approved the projects undertaken by RCD, and reiterated that the RCD concept is directed towards larger unity among all Muslim countries of the world.

During 1970, the Shahinshah of Iran visited Pakistan in March, and President Yahya Khan came to Turkey on April 30 "in response", as he put it, "to an invitation from my brother President Cevedet Sunay". This exchange of visits was followed by the Fourth RCD Summit Conference at Izmir, Turkey, on May 6, 1970. The next Summit meeting will be taking place in Iran in the course of 1971.

In keeping with general expectations, the RCD leaders have also widened the scope of their collaboration in such a way that going beyond the concept of economic co-operation, RCD is now developing into a political kinship of like-minded nations. This is evident from the staunch support Pakistan received from its two RCD partners in its 1965 conflict with India , the common approach of all three countries to the Middle East crisis at the Ramsar Summit of 1967 and their continued support for the Arab cause; the immediate and generous help Iran and Turkey provided for the cyclone-affected areas of East Pakistan in 1970; the sympathy and support they have both spontaneously given to Pakistan in the face of armed Indian infiltration into East Pakistan in March/April 1971 ; and the recent series of joint defence exercises. The joint call for the withdrawal of Israeli Forces from occupied Arab lands has also had a deep impact in Arab countries, and has thus apparently paved the way for Turco-Arab amity, on the one hand, and Iran's diplomatic *rapprochement* with the UAR, on the other.

In the cultural and social fields, annual programmes for the promotion of social and cultural ties have been formulated and implemented, including the exchange of eminent personalities, artists, students, sports teams, exhibitions, representatives of women's organizations, and radio and TV programmes ; the organization of joint seminars on various subjects, including sessions of the RCD Cultural Institute; and the holding of RCD sports and chess tournaments. At the final session of the RCD Committee on Social Affairs held at Islamabad on May 18, 1971, Iranian Deputy Minister of Information, Ali Samii, in his closing speech, voiced the sentiments of all participants when he said : "Our success will prove of benefit not just to our three countries, vast enough though these are in human and natural resources, but also to the wider world, indeed to the whole of humanity."

Arab States: In keeping with principles of international justice, as much as with fraternal feelings of Muslim brotherhood, Pakistan has always lent strong support to every just cause of the Arab States at the United Nations and other world gatherings. One may recall that it fought hard at the United Nations against the creation of Israel. Pakistan threw its full weight on the side of Libya's freedom, took up the cudgels on behalf of Morocco, Tunisia and Algeria—and in the process, incurred the displeasure of some Big Powers. It also sponsored the most crucial resolutions on the status of Jerusalem in the UN General Assembly and the Security Council.

The resolution of July 14, 1967, asking Israel to annul all measures taken to annex the Holy City was the only positive outcome of the long-drawn-out General Assembly debate on the Middle East. In April 1968, Pakistan sponsored another resolution in the Security Council, calling upon Tel Aviv not to alter the *status quo* of Jerusalem, and this was unanimously adopted. Pakistan played a leading role in the holding of the Rabat Islamic Summit of September 1969, where Heads of participating Islamic States or their representatives issued a joint declaration which demonstrated their united stand on the inadmissibility of the acquisition of territory by military conquest and the speedy withdrawal of Israeli Forces from all the territories occupied by them in June 1967.

Pakistan's unstinted support to the Arabs, particularly to the UAR, Jordan and Syria, which bore the brunt of Israeli aggression in June 1967, has been reciprocated by them. The institution of the President's Arab War Relief Fund was appreciatively welcomed by all Arab countries. The press and National Assembly of the UAR—with whom Pakistan's relations had earlier on, at times, been under stress—hailed Pakistan as the first among the friends of the Arabs. The late President Nasser, President Abd Al-Rahman Aref of Iraq, and Jordan's King Husain publicly acknowledged Pakistan's outstanding role and support in their struggle against Zionism. King Husain's visit to Pakistan in September 1967, and again in February 1968 and March 1970, forged closer relations with Amman, which has always supported the right of self-determination for the people of Kashmir.

President Yahya Khan and UAR President Sadaat, offering prayers at the grave of the late President Nasser on October 18, 1970.



In 1968, President Nasser's special envoy, Dr. Mahmoud Fawzi, also came to Pakistan and urged closer Pakistan-UAR ties. The two countries have since been working together for Afro-Asian solidarity, for the promotion of an equitable pattern of economic relations between the rich and poor nations, and for curbing the spread of nuclear weapons.

President Yahya Khan stopped over in Cairo on October 18, 1970, on his way to attend the Commemorative Session of the United Nations at New York. From the airport, President Yahya first drove to the Gamal Abdel Nasser Mosque with President Sadaat, where both offered *fateha* prayers. At the Mausoleum, President Yahya laid a green velvet spread on the grave, which after the *Kalema* bore the following inscription in Arabic : "A gesture of love from the Government and people of Pakistan in memory of the late Gamal Abd Al-Nasser." Thereafter, President Yahya went to the house of the late President and offered condolences to members of his family.

In the course of his talks with President Sadaat, President Yahya invited him to Pakistan, and he warmly accepted this invitation. At a UAR Television interview, the President of Pakistan said: "It is my view that the Zionists will lose ultimately, because time is against them. The Arabs have been subjected to great injustice, and injustice can never prevail: it may take years, may be a hundred years, but the Arabs are bound to triumph. We want to assure our Egyptian brethren that in this hour of trial every Pakistani is with them. May God protect and help them."

Towards the end of 1970, the Vice-President of Iraq, General Hardan Abd Al-Ghaffar Al-Tikriti, came to Pakistan on a five-day official visit from August 24 to 29, accompanied by a 12-member entourage, including the Minister of State for Presidential Affairs and senior officials of the Iraqi Government. General Tikriti discussed the international situation and matters of mutual interest with President Yahya Khan, and in his public statements warmly acknowledged Pakistan's support for the Arabs.

Pakistan's economic ties with Arab States have, in recent years, grown rapidly, particularly with Saudi Arabia and Kuwait. In March 1968, it was decided that Pakistan should set up a commercial bank at Jeddah to finance trade and industry on a regional basis. Earlier, an agreement had been signed for the exploration of oil in the Red Sea area. In April 1968, the Saudi Arabian Minister for Petroleum and Minerals Dr. Ahmad Zaki Yamani, brought important proposals to Pakistan—including possibilities of setting up a steel mill, an oil refinery, a textile factory, a shipping company and a petro-chemical industry, on a joint-venture basis. In the course of consultations on these proposals, it has also been suggested that an organization on the pattern of RCD be set up to promote co-operation between the two countries, whose trade in 1969/70 involved Rs. 38.2 million worth of exports to Saudi Arabia and Rs. 45.7 million worth of imports to Pakistan, as against corresponding figures of Rs. 6 million and Rs. 28 million in 1959/60.

Oil-rich Kuwait has also expressed a desire to embark on joint ventures with Pakistan. Trade between the two countries is already flourishing: in 1969/70 Pakistan's exports amounted to Rs. 32.1 million



Dr. A. M. Malik, Chairman of the Islamic Conference of Foreign Ministers, praying for the unity and prosperity of the Muslim World at the end of the closing session of the Conference held at the State Bank of Pakistan. Karachi, on December 29, 1970.

and imports to Rs. 9.3 million, leaving a sizable balance of trade. To facilitate the growth of trade, a direct radio-telephone link was established in November 1967

As a result of Pakistan's efforts to strengthen its over-all economic relations with the Arabs, including trade delegations sent to all the Arab countries, the two-way traffic of goods had in 1969/70 risen to over Rs. 354 million with some 22 Arab-speaking States in Asia and Africa about Rs. 230 million in exports and Rs. 124 million in imports.

Indonesia: Constituting the two largest States in the Muslim World, and as co-sponsors of the first Bandung Conference, Indonesia and Pakistan are united in a fraternity of faith and linked together in a quest for Afro-Asian solidarity. Since the end of 1964, with the signing of the Indonesia-Pakistan Economic and Cultural Co-operation agreement (IPECC), on the model of RCD, the relations of the two countries have progressed in a spirit of comradeship. This found eloquent

expression when Djakarta gave unequivocal support to Pakistan in its resistance against Indian aggression in September 1965.

In the first three years of IPECC's existence, various unforeseen developments, including an economic crisis in Indonesia, did not permit vigorous pursuit of its objectives. A fresh start was, however, made early in 1968 at a Ministerial Council meeting. It identified possibilities of joint ventures in jute manufacturing, rubber processing, ship-building, fisheries, and certain other projects, on which feasibility studies are now in the process of completion. In 1969, the Netherlands Government expressed interest in considering financial support and technical assistance for such projects. To strengthen the existing bonds of cultural kinship, it was decided to arrange cultural exchanges covering a wide range of activities. In the sphere of trade promotion, it was agreed that Pakistan should open a commercial bank in Indonesia and evolve new procedures to maximize trade. In April 1970, a high-powered Pakistani trade delegation visited Indonesia, which is to be followed up by an Indonesian trade delegation to Pakistan. Currently, Pakistan is also providing credit to Indonesia for the import of goods from Pakistan.

The Third Ministerial Council meeting of IPECC took place at Djarkarta in July 1970, preceded by a session of its Economic Council. The next series of IPECC meetings will be held in Pakistan during September 1971 The agreed programme of technical assistance for 1970/71 provides training facilities for 100 Indonesian officials in Pakistan, as against 30 such training arrangements actually furnished in 1969/70 in eight different fields. Indonesian training facilities for Pakistanis are to be made available in the following fields: cigar and cheroot industry, sugar palm and spice plantation, and fine arts.

The two countries' resolve to wage a common struggle for the economic emancipation of their 250 million people has set a new example of regional cohesion in South-East Asia. In his inaugural message to the IPECC Ministerial Council meeting at Djarkarta, the President of Indonesia, General Suharto, said : "For Indonesia it is a matter of pride to be so closely associated with Pakistan, a nation with great and noble aspirations. Our nations share many common things, a common way of life as well as a common background in culture, faith and historic struggle."

Malaysia and Singapore : With the exception of a short interval, Pakistan's relations with Malaysia have always remained cordial. Apart from being members of the Commonwealth, the two countries are neighbourhood Islamic States sharing a common strategic region in South-East Asia. They worked hard in close collaboration to make a success of the Islamic Foreign Ministers' Conference in December 1970 at Karachi. And in March/April 1971, Malaysia, like all the other Muslim countries, remained uninfluenced by the Indian propaganda against Pakistan, and showed a sympathetic concern for the crisis in East Pakistan.

Since the separation of Singapore from Malaysia in August 1965,

Pakistan has also maintained constructive relations with this relatively new independent State, which is referred to here because of its past association with Malaysia, even though it now does not form part of the Muslim world. A concrete illustration of this mutually beneficial relationship is furnished by the rapidly growing trade between Singapore and Pakistan. While there was no growth in the total volume of their trade between 1960/61 (exports to Singapore Rs. 6 million, imports from Singapore Rs. 22 million) and 1965/66, from the latter year up to 1969/70, in a matter of five years, exports to Singapore have risen by nearly nine times from Rs.11 million to Rs. 95.2 million, and imports from it have more than trebled from Rs. 6 million to Rs. 18.9 million. In this the movement towards a highly favourable balance of trade is also notable.

Trade with Malaysia has grown at a more gradual and somewhat fluctuating pace, from exports valued at Rs. 6 million in 1960/61 to Rs. 9.8 million in 1969/70, and imports from it for corresponding years from Rs. 16 million

President Yahya Khan speaking at a lunch given by him in honour of Heads of Delegations to the U. N General Assembly in New York on October 22, 1970.



to Rs. 25.8 million.

Neighbouring Countries: One of the main factors in the evolution of Pakistan's foreign policy has been its desire to live in peace and amity with its neighbours. In this it has been successful, with the sole exception of its unfortunate relations with India. The remarkable progress of its relations with China has already been reviewed under the section on Big Powers. And as the following brief outlines show, Pakistan has developed relations of considerable mutual advantage with Afghanistan, Burma, Nepal and Ceylon, overcoming earlier frictions with the first two countries, and surmounting Indian obstructions in its relations with Nepal.

Afghanistan : In addition to sharing a common faith and various inter-dependent economic interests, Afghanistan and Pakistan also share a wide range of common historical and cultural traditions—together with a common frontier of 1,200 miles, known as the Durand Boundary. Following initial misunderstandings about 'Pakhtoonistan', which in May 1961 led to a rupture of diplomatic relations, Pak-Afghan relations in 1963 again began to improve with the mediation of the Shahinshah of Iran, through whose good offices the two countries signed the Tehran Accord on May 30, 1963. In accordance with this, diplomatic relations were restored and the frontier was reopened after having remained closed for 22 months. On December 16, 1963, an air agreement was signed to re-establish the PIA service between Kabul and Karachi. It is also to be noted that even during the time that diplomatic relations were broken, Pakistan allowed Afghanistan to export its goods both to and through Pakistan.

Since then relations between the two countries have continued to improve, despite some minor setbacks. During the time of the 1965 India-Pakistan conflict, the people of Afghanistan clearly manifested their sympathies for Pakistan. When some months latter, in January 1966, President Ayub Khan visited Afghanistan, his talks with King Zahir Shah showed full agreement on basic issues. In the following year, King Zahir Shah came to Pakistan for an informal six-day visit from February 7 to 13, and was given a welcome that warmly expressed the basic brotherly feelings between the two countries. Although towards the end of 1968 and in September 1969, during 'Pakhtoonistan Day' functions, there were again some rumblings on the 'Pakhtoonistan' front in Afghanistan, with apparent signs of Indian backing, these subsided quite quickly; and in May 1970, Pakistan's Finance Minister, Muzaffar Ali Qizilbash, led a delegation to Afghanistan to explore possibilities of increasing trade and economic collaboration. On August 25, 1970, on the occasion of the 52nd Independence Celebrations of Afghanistan, Premier Nur Ahmed Etemadi welcomed the restoration of the former Porvinces of West Pakistan, and said that this would help to establish closer relations between the two countries and to develop economic co-operation between them.

Apart from being unmarred by any 'Pakhtoonistan' slogans in Afghanistan, the year 1970 saw a consistent development of Pak-Afghan co-

operation, including serious consideration of various joint enterprises, including the utilization of Afghan iron ore (located in the Haji Gak area) in Pakistani steel mills, for which purpose a Pakistani delegation of seven experts, led by the Chairman of the Pakistan Steel Mills Corporation, visited Kabul in September 1970. Subsequently, further links in the positive relation with Afghanistan were forged when in January 1971 an accord signed in Kabul provided for Pakistan-USSR trade through Afghanistan, and in February 1971, tripartite accord on co-operation in a regional programme of tourism was signed between Afghanistan, Pakistan and Turkey.

Trade between Afghanistan and Pakistan has more than doubled in the last 10 years, the value of exports to and imports from Afghanistan respectively increasingly from Rs. 15 million and Rs. 42 million in 1959/60 to Rs. 42.2 million and Rs. 94.3 million in 1969/70—with in between, during 1962/63, no exports at all, and imports valued at only Rs. 16 million. With a new bus service recently started and the establishment of projected new rail links, as well as the implementation of other schemes of economic co-operation, it is anticipated that this trade will grow even more rapidly in the future.

India: In consonance with its basic principles of good-neighbourliness, Pakistan has also repeatedly made appeals to its big subcontinental neighbour—with which it shares a long, if chequered, history (see chapter on Historical Background)—to normalize relations and lay firm foundations of peace in the area. But so far, despite the resolution of some disputes between the two countries, these appeals have largely gone unheeded. The chief cause for tension between them remains India's posture on Kashmir, which has in fact stiffened in recent years, although further major issues of conflict have now been added with India's stand on the Farakka Barrage and its interference in the East Pakistan crisis of March/April 1971.

Under the Security Council Resolution of September 20, 1965, (calling for a cease-fire with effect from September 22 in the armed conflict that had taken on the proportions of an undeclared war on September 6, when Indian Forces crossed the international border between the two countries near Lahore), and the Indo-Pakistan Tashkent Declaration of January 22, 1966, it was made clear that the two countries should seek a peaceful settlement on the issue of Kashmir The Security Council Resolution saw the cessation of hostilities as "a first step towards a peaceful settlementof the outstanding differences between the two countries on Kashmir and other related matters"; and decided that following the cease-fire, it would consider "what steps could be taken to assist towards a settlement of the political problem underlying the present conflict, and in the meantime calls on the two Governments to utilize all peaceful means, including those listed in Article 33 of the Charter, to this end . . ." The Tashkent Declaration, having mentioned that "Jammu and Kashmir was discussed, and each of the sides put forth its respective position", specified that "The Prime Minister of India and the President of Pakistan

have agreed that the sides will continue meetings both at the highest and at other levels on matters of direct concern to both countries."

But less than two months later, after the Ministerial talks at Rawalpindi in March 1966, the Indian Prime Minister, Mrs. Indira Gandhi, declared that there was nothing to negotiate with Pakistan on Kashmir, and made a public statement to this effect on May 10, 1967.

Subsequently, in the beginning of 1968, the worsening situation in occupied Kashmir, as well as internal and external pressures, obliged the Indian Government to release Sheikh Abdullah, the Kashmiri freedom fighter, widely known as *Sher-i-Kashmir* (Lion of Kashmir), who had earlier been released for only a short time before Pandit Nehru's death in April 1964, after a continuous incarceration of 11 years, to be reimprisoned shortly after his return from a visit to Pakistan in the same month. But this step was not followed up by any Indian move towards a settlement, in spite of the fact that in December 1967 President Ayub Khan, like his predecessors, had again gone so far as to express willingness to have impartial mediation or arbitration if that could help to resolve the dispute. On the contrary, within months of the Sheikh's release, Srinagar and New Delhi again began to threaten him with detention. The Kashmiri leader, however, refused to change his stand. In May 1968, he openly accused India of pursuing creed of "neo-imperialism" and becoming a "colonizer in Kashmir" He also warned that the new generation of Kashmiris might be forced to launch an Algerian type of resistance movement in the Valley. As oblivious to its own moral stance on the pacific settlement of international disputes as to appeals and protests from others, India continued to claim that Kashmir was an integral part of India. In a speech at Srinagar on July 15, 1970, Premier Indira Gandhi asserted that the Kashmir issue had been decided 23 years ago and that "whatever has happened cannot be undone". The Awami Action Committee Chief, Maulvi Waiz Mohammad Farooq, reminded India's Prime Minister that it was exactly 23 years ago that her father had agreed to hold free and fair elections to decide the future of Kashmir. Inaugurating a Convention at Srinagar, in June 1970, Sheikh Abdullah said: "It was the late Jawaharlal Nehru who broke his promises and kept me in prison for 12 years. Do you call it secularism over which the whole of India is shedding tears?" Abdullah also sent a memorandum to UN Secretary-General U Thant, saying that the august body had lost much of its confidence among the Kashmiris. In an obvious reference to the Srinagar speech of Premier Indira Gandhi, President Yahya Khan said in his broadcast to the nation on July 28, 1970: "A mere repetition by one party that the dispute does not exist or has resolved itself, does not make it vanish into thin air." In December 1970, in a circular letter to UN Members, Pakistan again rejected India's stand on Kashmir. The state is echoing with the slogan of 'Quit Kashmir' despite the repressive measures of the Indian Army of occupation. In January 1971, a big rally was taken out in Srinagar against the externment of Sheikh Abdullah and Afzal Beg and the banning of the Plebiscite Front on the eve of India's General Elections. This was tear-gassed, but its voice was not stilled.

Earlier, in September 1970, the Kashmir Liberation League had urged the UN to act in accordance with its resolutions. On the 25th Anniversary of the UN, President Yahya Khan, in search of a solution, suggested the withdrawal of both Indian and Pakistani Forces, so that the people of Kashmir could decide their future freely. India remained unmoved. But her former Governor-General (1948-50), C. Rajagopalachari, writing in the *Swarajjya Weekly*, the official organ of the Swatantra Party issued from Madras, astutely observed: "The solution of the Indo-Pakistan problem is tied up with Kashmir . . . India resists any plan such as I have suggested on the ground that Kashmir is of great 'strategic importance' to India . . . the notion ignores the hard reality that the people inhabiting the region must be with us if the region is to be of any value to us... India must accept a plan under which for a brief period, Kashmir can be under safe foreign trusteeship and the people can then decide what Government they decide to have . . . " And earlier, from Kashmir itself, on August 9, 1970, Sheikh Abdullah and Mirza Afzal Beg succinctly summed up the situation when they said, "India will have to vacate Kashmir—tomorrow definitely, if not today."

In the meantime, however, India persists in its massive arms build-up. It failed to respond to the voluntary 24 per cent reduction that Pakistan effected in its Defence Budget for 1967/68. On the contrary, the Indian Government created a new military imbalance in the Subcontinent by apportioning Rs. 12,410 million for defence in its 1971/72 Budget, a five-fold increase over the 1960/61 figure. Indeed, India's aggressive stance in South-East Asia matches the expansion of its Armed Forces—on land, at sea and in the air—to present fresh perils for peace in the Subcontinent. The cost of the arms race this implies forms a ruinous burden for the economies of both countries that India's saner elements also receognize, but seem unable to counter.

A particularly serious situation in Indo-Pakistan relations developed following the 'hijacking' of an Indian Fokker Friendship plane to Lahore on January 30, 1971, and its subsequent burning on February 2, by the 'hijackers' who purported to be Kashmiri freedom fighters. In an enquiry instituted bv the Pakistan Government in March the same year, it has since transpired that the 'hijackers', Mohammad Hashim Qureshi and Mohammad Ashraf Qureshi, were in fact not representatives of the freedom movement of Kashmir, but agents of the Indian Government. Supporting this finding, Sheikh Abdullah in a letter addressed to the Indian leader Jaya Prakash Narain, and published in the *Indian Express* issued from New Delhi on February 15, 1971, denounced the chief 'hijacker' as "an employee of the Border Security Force" of India, and several Indian papers also reported on the hijacker's contacts with Indian intelligence agencies. Indeed, according to Kashmir Chief-Minister G.M. Sadiq, the Kashmir police wanted to interrogate Hashim before the "hijacking incident, but the agency employing him refused." In its summary report officially released on April 20, 1971 (its report to the President having been submitted on April 15), the Commission of Enquiry stated: "From the evidence before it, the Commission has come to the

conclusion that the hijacking of the aircraft was arranged by the Indian intelligence agencies as the culmination of a series of actions taken by the Indian Government to bring about a situation of confrontation between Pakistan and India.

"These included Indian attacks on Batrigachh and other Pakistani enclaves (in East Pakistan) in December 1970, externment of Sheikh Abdullah and Mirza Afzal Beg, banning the Plebiscite Front and expulsion of a First Secretary of the Pakistan High Commission in New Delhi."

Shortly after this, in April/May 1971, India also put up harassing obstacles in the way of the Pakistani Deputy High Commissioner meeting his staff and winding up the affairs of the Deputy High Commission for Pakistan at Calcutta, as a preliminary to the mutual withdrawal of Deputy High Commissions of India from Dacca and of Pakistan from Calcutta.

Earlier, on February 4, 1971, India, in alleged reprisal for the 'hijacking' and demanding compensation for the destroyed aircrafts. had imposed a ban on flights of Pakistani aircraft over Indian territory, in particular the territory between East and West Pakistan. This was in complete violation of the air agreement between the two countries, and of international air conventions generally, as well as the norms of international behaviour in such situations set out in the Tokyo Convention of 1963, the Hague Convention of December 1970, and other relevant declarations—particularly in view of the fact that the Pakistan Government had facilitated the quick repatriation of the passengers and crew of the aircraft and had also done everything in its power to save the plane. This led the Commission to take the view that another motive behind the incident was to disrupt communications within Pakistan with a view to strengthening separatist tendencies. It adds that "the hijacking incident occurred at a time when talks were in progress between the leaders of the Awami League (now defunct) and the Pakistan People's Party for the resolution of differences arising from their programmes. Subsequent events, like the arms aid by India to subversive elements in East Pakistan and the concentration of Indian Forces on the East Pakistan border" confirm the Commission's conclusion.

Adding insult to injury, following its unlawful interference in the East Pakistan crisis (see chapters on Government and on Constitution and Legal System), India's propaganda machinery spread false allegations of ruthless repression and genocide by Pakistan's Armed Forces in East Pakistan—allegations which certains Indian newspapers have themselves, from time to time, reported to be unfounded or grossly exaggerated.

Finding this tack of interference fruitless, India shifted its emphasis onto an allegedly enormous influx of 2.6 million refugees (later claimed to rise to over 7 million!) into West Bengal as a result, it said, of deliberate expulsion from East Pakistan. Apart from its highly exaggerated account of the refugee situation—which in any case was the result of its own interference, encouraging and luring people into leaving their country to

disrupt the economic life of East Pakistan—in this campaign of vilification, India also completely ignored President Yahya Khan's clear statement of May 21, 1971, to the effect that there had never been any question of withholding permission to the return of *bona-fide* and law-abiding citizens to their homes. Instead, Premier Indira Gandhi followed up her ominous Ranikhet statement of May 19, 1971, that India "is fully prepared to fight if a situation is forced on us", with another, even more ominously self-righteous, on May 24, which took no notice of President Yahya Khan's statement. Herself taking no heed, Premier Indira Gandhi in the Indian Parliament said, "If the world does not take heed, we shall be constrained to take all means as may be necessary to ensure our own security and for the preservation of the structure of social and economic life." Winding up a four-hour debate in the Rajya Sabha (Upper House) of the Indian Parliament, India's Foreign Minister, Swaran Singh, amidst Opposition demands for Indian intervention, including military action, concluded with the threat that India would take "whatever action India thinks proper", if Pakistan refuses to restore "conditions of peace and security" in East Pakistan.

At the same time, India's unfortunately hostile attitude towards Pakistan also finds expression in its treatment of the Muslim minority in India. Since the Liaquat-Nehru Pact on Minorities (1950), there have been more than 1,000 riots in India, while Pakistan has had almost no communal riot ever since then. According to the Indian Home Ministry's annual report, in 1969, 519 communal incidents took place in India, as against 346 in 1958. The Ahmadabad riots of September 1969 were the worst since the Pact, with heavy losses of both life and property. In 1970, too, severe riots took place in Bhiwandi and Cooch Bihar, and anti-Muslim outbursts continued to persist in 1971. In addition, India has persistently refused to take back over half a million Muslim Indian nationals evicted by her from Assam, Tripura and West Bengal to East Pakistan since 1964.

New Delhi's failure to honour commitments and bilateral agreements—as in the case of the restoration of Berubari Union to Pakistan in accordance with the Indo-East Pakistan Border Agreement of October 1959—has caused further bitterness between the two countries. The latest example of India's attitude is its stand on the Farakka Barrage. As reported in the press during May 1971, India has completed the Barrage without signing any agreement with Pakistan. The effect of the Farakka Barrage will be to stop between a third and a half of the off-peak flow of the Ganges into East Pakistan, which would, in violation of East Pakistan's lower riparian rights (rights which are clearly recognized in international law), among other things : cause a serious shortage of water for irrigation; reduce the moisture content of the soil by lowering the ground water level; increase the discharge of silt, thereby increasing the threat of floods; harm navigability in the Ganges; and increase the danger of saline

water penetration into the coastal areas. The life of seven districts would thus be seriously affected—namely, Rajshahi, Pabna, Kushtia, Jessore, Faridpur, Khulna and Barisal, inhabited by some 25 million people.

Seeking a settlement of the Farakka dispute along the lines of the Indus Waters Treaty of 1960, Pakistan has in the past been holding a series of talks with India on Farakka and the eastern rivers generally, but with next to no positive response from India until the fifth of this series of talks, held between Indian and Pakistani officials at New Delhi on July 16-21, 1970. In a joint communique on these talks issued simultaneously at Delhi and Islamabad, it was stated that "Both sides agreed to submit to their respective Governments for their consideration the following agreed recommendations :

(i) "The point of delivery of supplies to Pakistan of such quantum of water as may be agreed upon will be at Farakka.

(ii) "Constitution of a body consisting of one representative from each of the two countries for ensuring delivery of agreed supplies at Farakka is acceptable in principle.

(iii) "A meeting to be held in three to six months at a level to be agreed by the two Governments to consider the quantum of water to be supplied to Pakistan at Farakka and other unresolved issues related thereto and to eastern rivers which have been the subject of discussion in the series of talks."

This agreement raised some hopes of a reasonable settlement; but even long after the expiry of the indicated "three to six months", the Indian Government has shown no willingness to resume the agreed talks. A particular irony of this intransigence is that the unilateral action of India spells widespread economic disaster for the very people of East Pakistan for whom India claims to have so much sympathy !

Beyond the rights and wrongs of the unfortunate and tragic position of Indo-Pakistan relations, Pakistan—conscious of the crippling effect this has on the economy and development of both countries, and the added hardship this implies for all peoples of the Subcontinent—continues to aim at settling all disputes between the two countries honourably through peaceful negotiation, and at establishing good neighbourly relations between them, on the basis of mutual respect and mutual advantage. In the past, it is through persistent efforts in line with these objectives that such major settlements as the following were made possible: the East Pakistan-India Border Agreement of 1959; the West Pakistan-India Border Settlement of 1960; the Indus Waters Treaty of 1960; and the settlement by arbitration of the Rann of Kutch dispute in 1968. And in 1971, commenting on oblique threats of war from Indian Premier Indira Gandhi, President Yahya Khan, at a press conference on May 24, expressing the hope that she "in her heart does not want war", again declared that Pakistan wished to live in peace, and did not want war with India, since it was his firm belief that wars solved no problems.

Nepal: Pakistan's constructive relations with Nepal, a Hindu State, present a refreshing contrast to its relations with India, and co-operation between them has been progressively stepped up over the years. Pakistan established diplomatic relations with Nepal only in March 1960, which was followed by a trade agreement in 1963. Subsequently, a Nepal-Dacca-Kathmandu PIA service was also agreed.

King Mahendra and Queen Ratna made a State visit to Pakistan in September 1961, which was reciprocated by President Ayub Khan with a return visit in May 1963. In February/March 1967, the King and Queen of Nepal paid another visit to Pakistan, which, though informal, confirmed Nepal's growing relations with Pakistan. And in September 1970, President Yahya Khan's State visit to Nepal strengthened the existing cordial relations between the two countries. In a joint communique issued at the end of the President's visit, the two sides stressed the need to explore possibilities for further co-operation, particularly in trade and economic affairs.

Pakistan has assured Nepal of all possible assistance, following the Indian Government's restrictions on Nepal's transport facilities through Radhikapur (West Bengal) for trade with Pakistan. Pakistan has urged India to view Napalese demands for transit facilities in the context of the rights of a land-locked country, with the hope that India might give Nepal the kind of facilities Pakistan furnishes Afghanistan for its trade with other countries, including India. Pakistan has thus always been willing to enter into discussions with India on any arrangements that might be considered desirable for Nepal's trade with East Pakistan through Indian territory.

Burma: Sharing a common frontier of some 100 miles with East Pakistan, Burma and Pakistan signed a treaty of friendship as far back as 1952; and following the Burman Premier's visit to Pakistan in 1959, the President of Pakistan visited Burma in 1961 to strengthen existing ties of friendship and economic co-operation. Then when some outstanding questions on the two countries' common frontier were finally settled with the Pakistan-Burma Boundary Agreement of 1966, relations between them were consolidated. Although trade between the two countries has not expanded in recent years, largely due to reduced imports of rice from Burma, it stands at a substantial level, with exports to Burma in 1969/70 amounting to Rs. 25.6 million, and imports from Burma valued at Rs. 14.5 million, giving Pakistan a favourable trade balance of Rs. 11.1 million.

Ceylon : Although Ceylon is situated nearly 1,500 miles away from each wing of Pakistan, Ceylon is virtually part of a shared Subcontinent, because of a common experience of British colonial rule, which produced a period of common history, including a similar struggle for freedom and many commonly inherited institutions and traditions. Strengthening the co-operation between the two countries—manifested, among other ways, through their collaboration in the Colombo Plan, the Commonwealth and the Bandung Conference of 1955—the President of Pakistan made a State visit to Ceylon in December 1963. Ceylon has also shown a continuing interest in the settlement of the

Kashmir issue on the basis of the United Nations resolutions, and has supported the Kashmiri people's right to self-determination. Furthermore, Ceylon has provided Pakistan with full air facilities when flights over Indian territory were suspended—both in September 1965 and more recently in February 1971. Earlier, when in January 1971 the Chairman of the Ceylon Shipping Corporation, P.B. Karandwala, visited Pakistan to discuss possibilities of Pakistani co-operation and technical assistance in the development of Ceylon's shipping industry, Pakistan officials assured him all the assistance that Pakistan could give within the limitations of its available resources.

Pakistan's trade with Ceylon has been expanding rapidly, too, despite the strong competition from India and Japan. The volume of this trade has increased by over 68 per cent in the 10 years between 1959/60 and 1969/70, exports from Pakistan rising from Rs. 27 million to Rs. 47.8 million, and imports to Pakistan from Rs. 19 million to Rs. 29.6 million. This gives Pakistan a favourable trade balance of over Rs. 18 million in 1969/70.

Far East and South-East Asia : Apart from countries of this region mentioned under previous sections, Pakistan also has friendly relations with most other countries and territories in this region, in particular with Japan, Australia, Philippines, Thailand and Hong Kong.

Japan: Pakistan enjoys a special position in Japan's foreign aid policy, and Japan currently forms the fourth largest source of foreign aid for Pakistan having entered the aid to Pakistan consortium in 1961. Among other major projects which it has helped to finance, Japan has given very substantial help in setting up Pakistan's first Steel Mill at Chittagong, and during the Third Plan period has pledged aid amounting to $ 160.6 million, including suppliers credits of $15.6 million. In January 1969, a Japanese Economic Survey Mission visited Pakistan to evaluate the results of Japanese economic assistance and explore possibilities of expanding the sphere of co-operation between the two countries. This was followed up by a goodwill visit by the Japanese Foreign Minister, Kichi Aichi, in August 1970. Japan also joined the Colombo Plan countries in 1954, and has ever since been extending technical assistance to Pakistan in various fields.

The volume of trade with Japan has been growing steadily, in particular imports from it have nearly trebled over the past 10 years, making it the fourth largest exporter of goods to Pakistan, after the United States, Germany and the United Kingdom.

In comparison with exports from Pakistan valued at Rs. 137 million in 1959/60 and imports to it worth Rs. 198 million, corresponding figures for 1969/70 are Rs. 172 million and Rs. 563.8 million. Pakistan participated in Japan's Expo 70 jointly with its RCD partners, Iran and Turkey. who together set up an RCD Pavilion as an example and symbol of harmonious and fruitful collaboration among nations. On Pakistan Day celebrations at Expo '70, replying to an address of welcome by the Commissioner-General of the Japanese Government, the Pakistan Minister of Industries and

Natural Resoucres, welcoming the collaboration received from Japan, observed : "I also hope that our participation in Expo '70 will pave the way for a further flow of trade from Pakistan to Japan, for which there is tremendous scope. This should, in turn, assist in the fulfilment of our cherished desire to make a more substantial contribution in the expansion of trade throughout the world, and especially in Asia. I also hope that my country's participation in this grand Exposition will bring the people and business community of Japan still closer to Pakistan in the greater interest of mutual co-operation."

Australia and New Zealand : Co-operating with Pakistan under various Commonwealth arrangements, Australia has rendered economic and technical assistance to Pakistan in various fields. Up to December 1969, it had provided aid amounting to $40.7 million, *all* in the form of outright grants, while for the Third Plan period alone it pledged aid totalling $9.1 million. The other Commonwealth member of the region, New Zealand, has also provided Pakistan with grant aid amounting to $6.8 million up to December 1969. Pakistan's trade with these two countries has been growing rapidly over the years. Between 1959/60 and 1969/70, exports to and imports from Australia have respectively risen from Rs. 33 million and Rs. 39 million to Rs. 93.7 million and Rs. 102.1 million, while corresponding figures for New Zealand show a rise from Rs. 4 million and an insignificant amount to Rs. 16.9 million and Rs. 9.8 million. In order to promote cultural contacts with Australia, Pakistan in March-October 1969 also organized an archaeological exhibition of 5,000 Years of Pakistan's Art and Culture in Australia, which after its inauguration at Canberra, toured various major Australian cities before its final showing at Melbourne.

Other Countries and Areas : While Pakistan has cordial relations with the Phillippines and Thailand, who are associated with it in the South-East Asia Treaty Organization, and trade with them is developing, Pakistan has in recent years also been cultivating its relations with both South and North Korea and South and North Viet-Nam. But in the matter of trade, it is Hong Kong that constitutes a major trading partner of Pakistan, with the value of exports to it and imports from it respectively rising from Rs. 144 million and Rs. 4 million in 1959/60 to Rs. 153.9 million and Rs. 22.1 million in 1969/70, giving Pakistan a favourable trade balance of no less than Rs. 131.8 million.

Latin America : Striving to develop its co-operation with countries in this region, Pakistan has been maintaining resident missions in Brazil and Argentina, and has adopted the following measures for contact with other countries: Pakistan's Ambassador in Argentina is also accredited to Chile and Uruguay; its Ambassador in USA is concurrently accredited to Mexico and Venezuela; its High Commissioner in Canada is accredited as Ambassador to Cuba and as High Commissioner to Jamaica, Trinidad and Tobago; and an Honorary Consul represents Pakistan in Panama.

In February 1968, a trade mission was sent to Brazil soon after the signing of a cultural agreement. In Argentina a cultural institute was established some time ago to make Pakistan better known there. Pakistan's Food Minister paid an official visit to Mexico in 1967 and concluded a fresh agreement for the purchase of wheat seed. Between 1959/60 and 1969/70, Pakistan has nearly trebled its exports to countries in Central and South America, from Rs. 39 million in 1959/60 to Rs. 103.7 million in 1969/70, including goods valued at Rs. 52.5 million to Argentina, Rs. 11.7 million to Brazil, Rs. 10.6 million to Chile, Rs. 10.6 million to Peru, and Rs. 7.8 million to Uruguay, mainly consisting of jute and jute manufactures. Meanwhile, imports from these countries have, however, remained very limited, amounting to less than Rs. 0.2 million in 1969/70, and leaving a favourable trade balance of over Rs. 103 million.

Pakistan shares common problems with the Latin Americans in respect of the mechanics of foreign aid, the raising of living standards, the curbing of nuclear proliferation, and the enforcement of the rule of law in international affairs. Both at the UN and UNCTAD conferences, and in other world forums, Pakistan has thrown its weight on the side of the just causes and aspirations of Latin American countries.

Africa : To the African struggles for independence, Pakistan has invariably lent staunch support. This explains why, after the independence of the Maghreb States (Libya, Algeria, Tunisia and Morocco) and other African States, a number of friendly agreements were signed with them to promote closer economic and cultural relations. As part of this development, an air agreement was signed between the Pakistan International Airlines and the East African Airways, owned jointly by Uganda, Kenya and Tanzania. Several trade pacts have been concluded with a view to reviving ancient trade ties.

In the past few years, trade delegations from East Africa have visited Pakistan. Early in 1968, a trade delegation from Pakistan went to East Africa and concluded on-the-spot deals for the export of Pakistani goods. In 1969/70, Pakistan exported goods worth over Rs. 256 million to countries in Africa (including the UAR and other Arab-speaking countries), while its imports from them stood at Rs. 13 million, leaving Pakistan with a large favourable trade balance of Rs. 243 million. Pakistan has also extended technical assistance to several African States, notably Zambia and Tanzania. There are plans now to embark upon joint industrial ventures. Hundreds of African students are currently receiving training in Pakistan in agricultural, industrial, scientific and technological fields. Cadets from Nigeria and Ghana have been receiving military training in Pakistani military academies for some years.

In June 1967, the President of Zambia, Dr. Kenneth Kaunda, paid an official visit to Pakistan. He held talks here on world trade, disarmament, nuclear non-proliferation, and the latest situation in Kashmir, in Rhodesia, and in South-West Africa. On the question of Rhodesia, it was agreed that measures against the illegal Smith regime in Salisbury should be made effective.

In March 1968, the Nigerian Foreign Minister, Dr. Okoi Arikpo, visited Pakistan. In the joint communique issued on this occasion Pakistan called for the enforcement of mandatory sanctions against the Smith regime, condemned Pretoria's *Apartheid* and the annexation of South-West Africa. In 1969, President Hamani Diori of Niger came to Pakistan for a short visit on November 8, while Prince Moulay Abdallah and Princess Lamia of Morocco, arrived four days earlier on a longer visit to Pakistan. Both visits established further contacts of warm friendship between the visitors' countries and Pakistan. At a banquet given in his honour by President Yahya Khan, President Hamani Diori, speaking in French, said that Pakistani technicians and experts had "made their mark abroad, particularly in African countries; and added that while Niger and Pakistan "stood at the two extremes of the Muslim world", Islam united the two countries in an indissoluble bond of friendship. Finally, the Prime Minister of Mauritius, Dr. Sir Ramgoolam, and Lady Ramgoolam, paid an official visit to Pakistan in February 1971; and in conclusion of their talks, Sir Ramgoolam and President Yahya Khan expressed their firm resolve to develop the existing ties of friendship between their two countries and promote co-operation in economic, political, cultural, educational and other spheres.

International Issues : Pakistan has consistently opposed racialism and colonialism in all forms. It demonstrated its solidarity with Africans by co-sponsoring the General Assembly resolution on *Apartheid* 1962, by supporting subsequent resolutions against it, and by serving diplomatic, consular and trade relations with South Africa. At the United Nations, Pakistan has been in the forefront of the struggle against Pretoria's hold on South-West Africa, and it was nominated to the 14-member committee established to recommend practical means to enable the people of South-West Africa to exercise their right of self-determination. In January 1968, Pakistan's initiative in mobilizing the World Body in defence of the 33 detained nationalists of South-West Africa underscored its resolve to continue the fight against *Apartheid.*

In the Security Council debate on the Rhodesian issue, Pakistan has been making a strong plea for the use of force to bring down the Smith regime. In April 1968, Pakistan told the Security Council that the failure of selective mandatory sanctions, and Salisbury's disregard of the UN resolution on the execution of African prisoners, posed a direct challenge to the world body and its future. At the Singapore Commonwealth Conference in February 1971, Pakistan, together with other Afro-Asian countries, opposed the British plan to sell arms to South Africa on the ground that this would be instrumental in promoting *Apartheid.*

Pakistan also played a key role at the UN in sponsoring the Conference of Non-Nuclear States, which met in August-September 1968, and made recommendations on questions of the security of Non-Nuclear States, and on co-operation among them to control the spread of nuclear arms and to secure guarantees that nuclear devices will be used only for peaceful purposes. At the Singapore Commonwealth Conference, Pakistan supported

the Ceylonese proposal for a nuclear-free zone of peace in the Indian Ocean, particularly as the geographical position of Pakistan demands that the sea lanes between its two wings remain free from all nuclear threats potential as well as existing ones.

Pakistan's just stand on major world issues, its advocacy of the Afro-Asian viewpoint, and its indefatigable efforts to promote world peace and the rule of international law, have together earned Pakistan a place of respect in the comity of nations, a token of which is also found in the fact that Pakistan nas been elected a member of the Security Council on more that one occasion, and that it has been an active member of numerous commissions and committees of the World Body.

(*Note:* Since this chapter went to press, the Aid-to-Pakistan Consortium in June 1971 decided to suspend its aid to Pakistan pending, it said, the normalization of the situation in East Pakistan. Several member countries of the Consortium—notably the United Kingdom, Canada and West Germany—have issued various statements in relation to aid that are tantamount to attaching political strings to aid, and thus also to interference in the internal affairs of Pakistan. As a result, Pakistan's relations with these countries have been subjected to considerable strain, and there have been demands within the country (a) to do without such aid and, in particular, (b) to severe relations with the Commonwealth in view of Britain's especially biased attitude towards Pakistan—also see Supplement I, reproducing the text of President Yahya Khan's Address to the Nation on June 28, 1971.)

Development Planning

IT IS IN THE midst of preparations to launch the Fourth Five-Year Plan on July 1, 1970, that the last year of the Third Five-Year Plan was completed on June 30, 1970. Because of a number of adverse circumstances, the implementation of the Third Plan has met with some setbacks, particularly the social sectors and the removal of regional disparity, which are considered in some detail in the following pages; but the progress achieved—particularly in the development of the physical instructure and of physical productorin —is still a tribute to the efforts of all sectors of the economy working under serious difficulties and handicaps.

Over the five Plan years, GNP is estimated to have increased by 32.2 per cent at 5.7* per cent per annum, against the Plan target of 37 per cent at 6.5 per cent per annum. The annual growth rate in West Pakistan has been about 7.1 per cent, mainly owing to the breakthrough in agriculture achieved by the successful adoption of the Mexi-Pak variety of wheat and increased production of rice. On the other hand, the annual growth rate in East Pakistan lagged behind at about 4.0 per cent; as against the objective of an

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*These figures are taken from the CSO *Monthly Bulletin* of March 1971; but more recent estimates of the Planning Commission place the GNP in 1969/70 a little higher at Rs. 54,412 million, with an annual growth rate of 5.9 per cent and a per capita GNP of Rs. 425. Leaving aside a regionally unallocated amount of Rs. 2,663 million, this estimate also indicates regional GNPs of Rs. 29,975 million for West Pakistan and Rs. 21,774 for East Pakistan, giving corresponding per capita GNP figures of Rs. 512 for West Pakistan and Rs. 311 for East Pakistan, which assume respective populations of 58 million and 70 million.

annual growth of about 7.5 per cent, which has largely been due to the slow growth in agriculture at 3.2 per cent per annum. Leaving aside agriculture, the annual growth rate in East Pakistan for the other sectors amounted to 4.9 per cent and for industry alone to about 7 per cent.

At a rough calculation, this means that of the estimated GNP (at constant factor cost of 1959) of Rs. 54,276 million for 1969/70, the share of East Pakistan amounts to Rs. 22,586 million and of West Pakistan to Rs. 31,690 million. This in turn implies that in 1969/70 per capita income in East Pakistan rose to only Rs. 323 as against about Rs. 542 for West Pakistan, giving a disparity ratio of 51.8 per cent, or an edge of 66 per cent in per capita GNP in West Pakistan over that of East Pakistan*. In the two decades between 1949/50 and 1969/70, this means that while in the first decade the per capita disparity between the two wings of the country increased from 16.4 to 27.7 per cent, by the end of the second decade it had more than tripled itself. Thus despite planned efforts and increased public sector expenditure in East Pakistan, the tide of enhanced disparity between East and West continued to grow. So that in 1970 the disparity problem had become more crucial than ever, and the Fourth Five-Year Plan, among other things, represents a major effort to deal with it (see the Fourth Plan below).

With a shortfall of about Rs. 8,405 million in financial resources (Rs. 3,351 million in external resources and Rs. 5,054 million in the domestic sector), it has been possible to fulfil only 72 per cent of the target expenditure of Rs. 30,000 million in the public sector, estimated Plan expenditure amounting to Rs. 21,594 million (*not* including an expenditure of Rs. 3,620 million on the Indus Basin Works and the Flood Control Programme, of an additional Rs. 82 million on Health and Family Planning, and of Rs. 23 million on Public Administration). Of this amount, about 52.8 per cent (Rs. 11,391 million) was made available to East Pakistan and 47.2 per cent (Rs. 10,203 million) to West Pakistan, including Central Government allocations, largely in accordance with the Plan.

In the private sector, investment reached Rs. 20,862 million against the target of Rs. 22,000 million, i.e. about 95 per cent (a percentage which is reduced to 73 per cent if, in view of the CSO estimate that by the end of the Second Plan the private sector fixed investment amounted to Rs. 4,198 million, the revised benchmark target is raised to Rs. 28,500 million). But whereas in West Pakistan the investment achieved rose to Rs. 15,419 million against the target of Rs. 11,000 million, in East Pakistan, against the same target, investment amounted to only Rs. 5,443 million, leaving a shortfall of over 50 per cent.

One of the main difficulties faced in the Third Plan period has been the poor investment performance and the sharp decline in the ratio of gross investment (domestic savings plus external resources) to GNP, which has ranged between 14.5 to 15.7 per cent compared with 18.8 per cent in 1964/65. The Plan had set a target of 20.2 per cent of GNP for investment in 1969/70,

*The first ratio is the difference in per capita GNPs of the two wings of the country expressed as a percentage of the GNP of the country as a whole—the second a simple direct percentage comparison.

and the target for the Perspective Plan had been based on the attainment of this proportion. Estimates made in the middle of 1970 indicate that the investment in 1969/70 will not amount to more than 14 per cent of GNP in 1969/70, making it more difficult to achieve the Perspective Plan targets. The lower level of investment has resulted primarily from a substantial reduction in gross international assistance from 6.6 per cent of GNP in 1964/65 to 4.1 per cent in 1969/70. It financed only 34 per cent of the planned development compared with 37 per cent in 1964/65. This decline, coupled with larger defence needs (a total expenditure of Rs. 12,384 million, as compared with a projected expenditure of Rs. 6,890 million, during the Plan period) and, in certain years, expenditures on sizeable food imports, placed a heavy burden on the country's export earnings, with the result that the squeez on imports operated severely on the industrial sector. In addition, a shortfall in PL-480 assistance meant that a considerable part of the Indus Basin Works to be financed from PL-480 Counterpart (rupee) Funds had to be met from internal resources outside the Plan. These factors, plus the disturbed conditions in the concluding years of the Plan, were the principal causes of the shortfall in the investment performance.

Review of Planning : Pakistan has gone through two decades of development. In the process its economy has altered significantly. The size of the national product has grown, its structure has become more diversified and developed, and the practices and techniques of production have been modernized. For an economy deficient in crucial natural resources, the transformation has brought Pakistan a long way. It has also meant sacrifices for large sections of the people. Although the inflow of foreign assistance helped finance mounting development outlays, the burden was also borne by a sizeable domestic savings effort, especially in relation to the low level of per capita income.

The structural changes in the economy—that is the volume, speed, and nature of industrialization, the technical and institutional breakthrough in agriculture, the progressive growth of the infrastructure, financial institutions and administrative capabilities—have created conditions in which the 'take-off' point is likely to be reached within measurable time. This achievement has been mainly due to relentless efforts in development planning.

The present stage of planning has been reached through a process of evolution which was basically conditioned by the initial problems faced in 1947. The whole process may be divided into three phases, the Six-Year Plan period from 1949/50 to 1954/55, the two Five-Year Plan periods from 1955/56 to 1964/65, and starting from 1965/66, the Perspective Planning period.

Economically, East Pakistan, the North-West Frontier Province and Baluchistan were the most underdeveloped regions in the Subcontinent at the time of Independence. In addition, the resource endowments of East and West Pakistan were different. East Pakistan specialized in the production of two major crops, rice and jute. West Pakistan specialized mainly in wheat and cotton. As there were no processing facilities in these regions,

raw jute and cotton were sent to the rest of undivided India partly for manufacturing and partly for export overseas. The areas now forming Pakistan depended almost entirely of the Indian part on the Subcontinent for nearly all their requirements of manufactured and semi-manufactured products.

Besides, the newly established State had to face vast social, political, and administrative problems as immediate consequences of Partition. Pakistan also had to tackle and control disruption in almost every one of its socio-economic institutions. Millions of immigrants had to be resettled. The local, as well as Central, administration had to be re-established and set in motion.

Six-Year Plan : After initial administrative difficulties had been largely surmounted and economic conditions began to improve, a bold and clear policy for industrial development was quickly announced. A Development Board, a Planning Advisory Board, and an Economic Committee of the Cabinet were set up as early as 1948. The first effort at planning was made in 1950, when, on the basis of the recommendations of the Colombo Plan Consultative Committee, a Six-Year Development Plan 1951-57 was formulated.

The Six-Year Plan envisaged a total expenditure of Rs. 2,600 million, of which Rs. 1,200 million were to be financed externally and Rs. 1,400 million from internal resources. A Two-Year Priority Programme was drawn up in 1951 within the framework of the Six-Year Plan. The Plan was flexible in many ways and was modified and expanded in later years. Against the original estimate of the total public sector expenditure of Rs. 2,600 million in six years, more than Rs. 3,000 million were spent during the first five years of the programme.

The preparation of the Six-Year Plan suffered from a lack of adequate information and basic statistics regarding resource availabilities and inter-relations between different sectors of the economy. Therefore, it mainly concentrated on certain important schemes for the development of the infrastructure, the need for which was quite obvious.

The implementation of the Six-Year Plan and subsequent development efforts were also conditioned by certain crucial economic events, namely, the deadlock of Indo-Pakistan trade in 1949 and the Korean crisis in 1951. Following the devaluation of the Indian rupee in September 1949, there occurred a complete deadlock in Pakistan's trade with India, which ruptured the pre-Independent pattern of trade. Up to 1949, about 80 per cent of Pakistan's external trade was with India. It fell to zero between September 1949 and April 1950, and never rose to more than 7 per cent even after its resumption until 1965, when it again broke off. The consequences were far-reaching for Pakistan. It was absolutely necessary to find alternative markets for its products to avoid further economic disruption and assure a sound base for progress.

The adjustment effort took the forms of (a) diversification of external trade and (b) substitution of the processing functions previously performed by India. The latter was already implicit in the policy of industrial deve-

lopment adopted in 1948; in 1949/50, the former became a pre-condition for the latter. To facilitate quick diversification of trade, the Government had to make direct administrative efforts and to follow a trade policy appropriate to the situation. Thus, an Open General Licence (OGL) policy was introduced to facilitate the growth of a new class of traders unhindered by rigorous administrative controls, as well as to avoid overburdening the administration in the implementation of such controls. The OGL did serve its purpose; but Pakistan's effort at this critical stage was largely facilitated by the Korean conflict. As a result of the Korean boom, there occurred a sudden upsurge in the demand for raw materials. Pakistan not only diversified her external trade successfully, she also earned a substantial amount of foreign exchange.

But the depression that followed in late 1951 created a new adjustment problem. The rapid depletion of foreign exchange reserves forced Pakistan to adopt a rigorous policy of import control from the middle of 1952. The new import policy virtually banned all imports of consumption goods, excepting the most essential; but it made liberal provision for the import of capital goods for the purpose of industrial development. This had a very favourable effect on the process of industrialization in the country With rigorous control on imports, the prices of consumer goods in the domestic market went up. The prospect for higher margins of profit in a sheltered market turned some of the traders into industrial investors. They had the requisite funds accumulated from the Korean boom. The most important immediate advance was made in the cotton textile industry, because apart from the availability of raw materials, the technique was simple and known, and the domestic market was large and growing. This early development occurred mainly in West Pakistan. In order to stimulate industrial growth in both Provinces in as wide a field as possible, the Government quickly established the Pakistan Industrial Development Corporation in 1950, whose purpose was to develop industries in East and West Pakistan either alone or in partnership with private enterprise.

Industrial development between 1951 and 1957 moved at a spectacular rate, manufacturing output nearly quadrupling in six years; but progress in agriculture and related fields was less satisfactory, and the production of food-grains actually decreased. While it is true that the Six-Year Plan had serious short-comings, its importance should not be underestimated. It facilitated the preparation and implementation of important projects for the development of transport, communications, water and power, and technical education. This Plan will remain important in the economic history of Pakistan, not only as a precursor of more comprehensive national planning, but also as a valuable educational experiment in this vast and complicated field.

However, industrial development through private effort occurred mainly in West Pakistan for certain important reasons. First, West Pakistan had a better infrastructure than East Pakistan. Secondly, the development occurred largely in cotton textiles, and West Pakistan is the producer of raw cotton. Thirdly, almost all the potential entrepreneurs

were in West Pakistan, since migrant business people from India came mostly to West Pakistan, and it was they who took the initiative in industrial development.

The initial lead in the development of industry, together with the heavy capital expenditure on defence, induced a progressive increase in expenditure on the infrastructure by the public sector in West Pakistan. This trend of development influenced the pattern, size, composition, and implementation of both the First and Second Five-Year Plans.

First Five-Year Plan : While implementing the Six-Year Plan, an increasing need was felt for the formulation of a co-ordinated and integrated development plan based on a better estimate of resources and a systematic order of priorities for the intersectoral distribution of investment. Consequently, the Government appointed the Economic Appraisal Committee to review the country's economic situation. The Committee's report represented Pakistan's first attempt at an orderly analysis of economic problems on the basis of available data. It also made important data available to non-official users. This report was followed by the creation of the Planning Board, in July 1953, charged with the preparation of a development plan for the five-year period 1955-60.

Early in 1955, the Planning Board published the draft of the First Five-Year Plan to elicit public opinion. Special conventions of professional economists of the country were organized by the Planning Board in East and West Pakistan, where the Draft Plan was examined and discussed in full detail. This was followed by the appointment of a panel of economists who further reviewed the Draft Plan. The final version of the Plan was then prepared in the light of these reviews and discussions.

The Plan made an over-all analysis of the economic problems of less developed countries in general, and a penetrating study of the basic socio-economic problems of Pakistan in particular. Indeed, the first part of the Plan can be regarded as a standard analysis of the problems of economic development. For the first time, the resource potentials of the country were systematically examined and estimated on the basis of data available to the Board. Starting from desired rates of growth in different sectors, the quantum of investment required was estimated, intersectoral priorities set, and consistency tested.

The Plan also laid down the basic objectives of Pakistan regarding the nature of the future economic system. While it clearly expounded the necessity for public investment to initiate planned, long-term economic growth in less developed countries, the Plan emphasized the crucial role to be played by the private sector and the necessity for fostering a healthy growth of private enterprise without jeopardizing the basic need for economic and social justice. As preconditions for working out such an objective, the Plan made an extensive study of institutional and administrative problems, and set out pertinent recommendations for land reform and other administrative and legislative changes.

The basic growth objectives of the Plan were:

(i) to increase GNP by 15 per cent and per capita income by 7 per cent, allowing for an annual population increase of 1.4 per cent;

(ii) to increase food production by 9 per cent and cash crop production by 15 to 20 per cent;

(iii) to increase industrial production by about 60 per cent.

(iv) to create 2 million new jobs.

Plan Size : The draft of the First Five-Year Plan formulated a gross programme of Rs. 10,236 million for the public sector. Out of this, Rs. 3,002 million were allocated to East Pakistan, Rs. 3,503 million to West Pakistan and Rs. 2,731 million for the Central Government programme. The Plan also made a block provision of Rs. 1,000 million to accommodate possible new schemes of the Government of East Pakistan.

The First Plan was not formally approved by the Government till 1957. In the process, revision of the Plan size became necessary. The revised Plan, published in December 1957, made a total allocation of Rs. 10,800 million, of which Rs. 7,500 million were to be spent in the public sector and Rs. 3,300 million in the private sector. Of the total allocation, Rs. 6,600 million were to be financed from domestic resources and Rs. 4,200 million from external resources.

Allocations : On the basis of a pre-assigned order of priorities, an intersectoral distribution of public investment was made. As can be calculated from Table II, the Plan proposed public expenditure to the extent of 12.9 per cent on agriculture; 28.8 per cent on water and power; 17.4 per cent on industry, fuels, and minerals; 17.8 per cent on transport and communications; 9.2 per cent on physical planning and housing; and 6.2 per cent on education. The main emphases of allocations in the private sector were on industry and housing, so that in total Plan expenditure the shares of these sectors rose to 26.7 per cent and 13.1 per cent respectively.

In view of the initial economic conditions in the country, especially its poor infrastructure, the First Plan rightly assigned relatively high priority to the development of the physical infrastructure, including water and power and transport and communications. However, the importance of a simultaneous increase in agricultural and industrial output was not minimized. In view of the initial growth of the industrial sector in Pakistan, the First Plan adopted a policy of supporting and accelerating the process which had already started. Consequently, 17.4 per cent of the total public sector investment was allocated to industry. Although the direct allocation to agriculture was 12.9 per cent, the actual allocation to this sector was higher, since a big share of investment on the development of water resources was really related to agriculture. The major proportion of investment in the education sector was earmarked for the development of technical education, which was directly related to the creation of technical manpower for the implementation of the development programmes.

Performance : A little over 70 per cent of the public sector financial objectives of the Plan were achieved, leaving an investment shortfall of about

30 per cent. But while in West Pakistan the public sector targets were more than fulfilled, in East Pakistan only about 37 per cent of the targets were realized.

The actual increase in GNP was about 12.7 per cent[1], at a cumulative annual growth rate of 2.4 per cent, against the Plan target of 15 per cent. But as population increased by about 12 per cent in the Plan period, the per capita income recorded hardly any increase. Separate regional growth figures have been estimated by Gustav F. Papanek at 1.7 per cent per annum for East Pakistan and 3.2 per cent per annum for West Pakistan, with an over-all annual growth rate for the country as a whole of 2.5 per cent.[2]

The Plan target was exceeded in the industrial sector, but more important was the fact that the achievement in this sector was made with significantly less investment than had been anticipated. The composition of industrial output changed, and, due to the efforts of the Pakistan Industrial Development Corporation (PIDC), a shift towards the production of heavier goods took place. Besides investments in jute, paper, woollen textiles and sugar industries, considerable investments were also made in cement, chemicals and shipyards. Plan targets in power, transport, and physical planning were more or less fulfilled. The most disappointing results occurred in the key sector of agriculture. Consequently, the country had to spend about Rs. 700 million on the import of food-grains against Rs. 410 million provided for the Plan.

The shortfalls in the implementation of the First Plan were attributable to such factors as non-development expenditures going far beyond the anticipated levels; foreign exchange earnings falling short of the Plan targets; unfavourable terms of trade; rises in internal and external prices upsetting the Plan's cost calculations, and delay in the receipts of foreign aid. In addition, the country faced unfavourable weather conditions during the Plan years. One of the most important reasons for inefficient implementation of the Plan was the incorrect or unsuitable orientation of Government agencies; development was not their traditional objective. Nor were the policies to encourage greater production of food-grains given effect.

The particularly great shortfall in the implementation of the First Plan in East Pakistan was due to a similar group of factors, among which administrative inexperience, slow growth of infrastructure, and a dearth of entrepreneurs in that region need to be specially mentioned. The result, in any case, was that from an edge of an 18 per cent higher per capita GNP over East Pakistan in 1949/50, West Pakistan in 1959/60 had further advanced to a point where its per capita GNP was ahead of that of East Pakistan by about 32 per cent—involving very nearly a doubling of the disparity within 10 years.

But despite shortfalls in the achievement of the Plan targets, the country gained invaluable experience during the First Plan period. Productive processes of crucial significance were set in motion, and development

[1]Due to a typographical error perpetuated from source documents, the first two editions of the *Pakistan Year-Book* gave this figure as 11 per cent.

[2]G.P. Papanek, *Pakistan's Development*, Karachi, O.U.P., 1968, p. 7-21

activities gained some momentum. Along with the Government's commitment to planned development, administrative machinery was geared to the demands of efficiency in implementing development projects. After 1958, a number of semi-autonomous bodies were created. These included the Water and Power Development Authorities, Agricultural Development Corporations, East Pakistan Inland Water Transport Authority, Forest Industries Development Corporations, and Road Transport Corporations. Land Reform in West Pakistan was carried out, and a number of commissions on different socio-economic problems were set up. The Planning Board was raised to the status of a Planning Commission directly under the President. The material, technical and human basis for formulating and implementing the Second Plan (1960-65) was strengthened.

Second Five-Year Plan : The major growth objectives of the Plan (as revised in 1961) were to increase :

(i) GNP by 24 per cent ;
(ii) per capita income by 12 per cent;
(iii) food-grain production by 21 per cent;
(iv) industrial production by 60 per cent;
(v) foreign exchange earnings by 15 per cent,
(vi) job opportunities by 3 million.

Plan Size : The original size of the Second Plan was Rs. 19,000 million, of which Rs. 13,000 million were to be spent in the public (Rs. 9,750 million), and the semi-public (Rs. 3,250 million) sectors and Rs. 6,000 million in the private sector. Subsequently, the total size of the plan was raised to Rs. 23,000 million—Rs. 14,620 million for the public and semi-public sectors and Rs. 8,380 million for the private sector. About Rs. 8,000 million were to be obtained through external aid. Provision was also made for the investment of about Rs. 5,180 million, outside the Plan outlay, in the Indus Basin Replacement Projects and Works Programme. Of the total public sector outlay, Rs. 6,380 million were allocated for East Pakistan and Rs. 8,240 million for West Pakistan, including Central Government allocations.

Strategy : The Plan strategy was governed by the crucial objective of increasing national income by 24 per cent during the Plan period and creating new capacity for future growth. The strategy adopted was to maximize output through minimum inputs in the short run. Consequently, primary emphasis was placed on the quick completion of aided and on-going projects which had reached an advanced stage of implementation, and on accelerating development in agriculture and small-scale industry, where the capital-output ratios were relatively low. A quick growth of agricultural output was considered necessary to reduce pressure on the balance of payments and to widen the extent of the domestic market in order to facilitate unfettered growth in the industrial sector.

In spite of the emphasis on economizing capital per unit of output,

about 50 per cent of the total public sector programme was devoted to the development of water and power and transport and communications, which were highly capital intensive with longer gestation periods. This was necessary not only for balancing the productive capacity, especially in East Pakistan, with the projected growth of output, but also for creating the capacity to speed up the growth of output in subsequent plan periods. Greater emphasis was also given to education and training, surveying and research.

In the realm of policy, because of the lesson learnt during the First Plan period, more reliance was placed on the market mechanism. Instead of direct price controls, stress was laid on fiscal and monetary policies as parameters for influencing resource allocations.

Lastly, a built-in flexibility was introduced in the Plan strategy. Because of the awareness of uncertainties in respect of resource availabilities, weather conditions, the international situation, the behaviour of growth-fostering agents in the economy, technological changes, and other factors, provision for the alteration of Plan priorities were made so that adjustment to changing circumstances could be quickly made in order to attain the broad objectives of the Plan. Accordingly, primary emphasis was placed on a rigorous utilization of the Annual Development Budgets of the Central and Provincial Governments as instruments for the review of resources and programmes.

Allocations : As can be seen from Table II, about 15 per cent of the total Plan expenditure was allocated to agriculture, 19 per cent to water and power, 22 per cent to industry, 18 per cent to transport and communications, 15 per cent to physical planning and housing, and about 5 per cent to education.

An important feature of intersectoral allocations was that of the total public sector expenditure, about 17 per cent was directly allocated to agriculture as against 10 per cent for industry, over 70 per cent of the responsibility for the development of the latter being placed on the private sector. Since the major part of expenditure on water development was directly connected with agriculture, the highest priority was, in fact, assigned to the development of agriculture.

Achievements : In financial terms, 95 per cent of the public sector investment was implemented, while the private sector overfulfilled its Plan targets. Of the total expenditure in the public sector, about 51 per cent was financed from domestic resources and the remaining 49 per cent from external resources. Gross investment as a percentage of GNP showed a steady and sound increase from 11.8 per cent in 1959/60 to 18.8 per cent in 1964/65. The agricultural sector responded so well that food-grain production rose by about 27 per cent, agaisnt the Plan target of 21 per cent. Industrial production increased by over 61 per cent, and foreign exchange earnings grew at an annual rate of 7 per cent (against the Plan target of 3 per cent). GNP increased by over 30 per cent against the Plan target of 24 per cent, at an annual cumulative growth rate of 5.5 per cent.

Consequent upon the growth of GNP, notable structural changes

occurred in the economy. The share of agriculture in GNP declined from 53.2 per cent in 1959/60 to 48.2 per cent in 1964/65, while the share of manufactures increased from 9.3 per cent to 11.5 per cent. Even more substantial was the augmentation in the contribution of the construction sector, which rose from 2.1 per cent in 1959/60 to 4.7 per cent in 1964/65. Also notable was the balancing of the relative growths of agriculture and industry. Before the Second Plan, the growth of agricultural output had not exceeded 1.3 per cent per annum, lagging behind the population increase of about 2.3 per cent per annum, while industrial output grew at the rate of about 7.4 per cent per annum. In the Second Plan period, the respective growth rates for these sectors came to 3.4 per cent and 10 per cent per annum. The agricultural growth was mainly the result of institutional changes and of expanded availability and utilization of water, fertilizer, seed, pesticide and modern farming techniques.

The most significant achievement was the acceleration of economic growth in East Pakistan. East Pakistan was able to implement about 95 per cent of the programme in the public sector. The GNP originating in East Pakistan increased at the annual compound rate of about 4.4 per cent compared with 1.9 per cent in the fifties, while the corresponding rate in West Pakistan was 6.4 per cent as against 3.1 per cent in the fifties. (The regional growth rates are rough approximations calculated by the Planning Commission[1]; whereas earlier estimates had placed the respective annual growth rates of East and West Pakistan at 5.0 and 5.5 per cent.) Indeed, but for the sluggishness of the private sector, East Pakistan should have achieved a higher growth rate. However, as matters stood, disparity between the two wings of the country in effect increased, so that from a 32 per cent higher per capita GNP in West Pakistan in 1959/60, the difference further rose to 45 per cent.

The implementation of the Second Plan also witnessed significant changes in economic policy. The economy was progressively freed from direct administrative controls and remaining controls were co-ordinated with market mechanisms. One of the reasons for success in the agricultural sector was the abandonment of rationing, establishment of support prices for wheat, subsidy on fertilizer (over 50 per cent), and a more liberal import of tube-wells in the private sector. There was a gradual relaxation of restrictive controls on imports, and the basis of the Export Bonus Scheme was expanded. The list of items placed on automatic licences was progressively enlarged. Increased domestic output together with the liberalization of imports maintained high stability in domestic prices. Consequently, the wholesale price index increased by only 10 per cent, in spite of a 47 per cent increase in money supply during the Second Plan period.

Perspective Plan : The formulation of the Second Plan was made against a perspective of the stage and the nature of economic growth to be achieved in the subsequent plan periods. But Pakistan's experience in planning was then not ripe for a clear specification of attainable goals over the future plan

[1] *Economy of Pakistan, 1948-68*, Economic Adviser to the Government of Pakistan, Ministry of Finance, Islamabad, p.354.

periods. The Second Plan demonstrated the capacity of the country to attain growth rates of over 5 per cent per annum, while the gross investment level had risen to 18.8 per cent of GNP by 1964/65. About 22 per cent of the incremental income during the Second Plan period was saved and reinvested, while the volume of export grew at a rate of about 7 per cent per annum. There had been a breakthrough in the agricultural sector and a greater inflow of foreign aid. The private sector matured in the realm of investment. Thus the experience gained in the implementation of the Second Plan provided the requisite background for preparing a tentative Perspective Plan for the period between 1965 and 1985, as a basis for the formulation of individual plans within the Perspective Plan period.

The Perspective Plan, as can be seen from Table IV, was drawn up with the following broad objectives in view :

(a) four-fold increase in GNP by 1985 over the level of 1965, which would allow per capita income to be more than doubled;

(b) provision of full employment for the entire labour force;

(c) parity in per capita incomes between East and West Pakistan;

(d) universal literacy;

(e) elimination of dependence on foreign aid.

In order to attain these long-range goals, the Perspective Plan envisaged that GNP would increase at a compound rate of 7.2 per cent, gross investment at 8.5 per cent, gross domestic savings at 11.4 per cent, and exports at 7.9 per cent per annum over the period between 1965 and 1985.

Third Five-Year Plan : The Third Plan (1965-70) was prepared as the first individual plan of the Twenty-Year Perspective Plan. Technically, as a plan document, it was more comprehensive than the other plans for several reasons. Because of increased availability of data and increased experience and skill, the Third Plan was formulated on the basis of an input-output model for Pakistan. In view of the constitutional obligations to remove economic disparity between East and West Pakistan and in view of the strengthening of the planning mechanism in East Pakistan, the Third Plan also explicitly incorporated the needs and the measures for removing regional disparity in economic growth over a specified period.

The Third Plan aimed at the following objectives:

(i) a minimum increase of 37 per cent in GNP at an average cumulative rate of 6.5 per cent per annum ,

(ii) increase of export earnings by 9.5 per cent per annum, involving a total increase of 57 per cent over five years;

(iii) a minimum increase of regionally originated GNP in East and West Pakistan by 40 per cent and 35 per cent, respectively;

(iv) reducing inter-regional disparities by 20 per cent;

(v) creation of 5.5 million new jobs to absorb the entire increase in the labour force during the Plan period, as well as to reduce the existing level of unemployment by over one-sixth; development of basic industries, so that the requirements of producer goods for further industrialization could be met mainly from the country's own capacity;

(vi) acceleration of the on-going transformation in agriculture by placing the highest priority on measures to increase per acre yields and by maintaining strong incentives through subsidies and the like;

(vii) control of population growth through decisive steps towards family planning;

(viii) provision of better housing, more health services, and greater facilities for education, especially for the lower income groups;

(ix) achievement of specific social objectives, such as reduction of inequalities in the distribution of income, wealth, and economic power, and increased provision for social security.

Plan Size: The total size of the Plan was set at Rs. 52,000 million—Rs. 30,000 million in the public sector and Rs. 22,000 million in the private sector. For the country as a whole, the Second Plan ratio between public and private sector development expenditures was more or less maintained, but in order to reduce economic disparity through accelerated growth, the ratio of the public sector expenditure in East pakistan was raised. Of the total public sector allocation (including Central expenditure,) Rs. 16,000 million were earmarked for East Pakistan, with Rs.14,000 million left for West Pakistan, while the total allocation for the private sector was equally divided between the two wings of the country. (Allocations for Centrally executed projects were notionally divided between the two wings in terms of (a) a fifty-fifty share in projects serving the country as a whole and (b) the location of projects.)

About 55 per cent of the public sector development programme was to be financed from domestic resources, and the remaining 45 per cent from foreign loans. A substantial part of the increased public savings was expected to come from larger budgetary surpluses at the existing tax rates and from net capital receipts.

The private sector's performance in respect of fixed capital formation had exceeded targets in the Second Plan. The adoption of liberal economic policies and other measures was expected to accelerate private investment in the Third Plan and, as can be seen from Table VI, most of the private investment was to be undertaken from private domestic savings. As a result, the share of external resources in the total expenditure of the Third Plan was to be only 32 per cent, but in relation to expenditure in the public sector alone, as much as 45 per cent, as against 55 per cent from public domestic resources.

Strategy : The Third Plan strategy was governed by the achievements of the Second Plan and by the objectives of the Perspective Plan. The target of a 6.5 per cent cumulative annual growth rate in GNP fitted in with the projected growth rate in the Perspective Plan.

The pattern of growth in the Third Plan was mainly an extension of the Second. However, agriculture was assigned a more dynamic role than before; and at the same time, relatively greater emphasis was placed on the development of heavy industries and certain parts of the infrastructure. The latter, in particular, involved a higher capital-output ratio during the Third

Plan period.

During the Second Plan period, the rate of growth was 3.4 per cent in agriculture, 8.6 per cent in industry, and 6.7 prer cent in other sectors. The corresponding projected growth rates in the Third Plan were 5.0, 10.0 and 7.1 per cent, respectively.

The Third Plan aimed at maintaining the average marginal rate of saving achieved during the Second Plan period, which at 22 per cent, was expected to raise the level of gross domestic savings to 13.6 per cent of GNP by 1970. Considering the higher base from which the Third Plan started, this was a reasonable target. As before, the strategy for mobilizing domestic savings included the objective of canalizing the distribution of the national product in such a way that it would favour economic sectors that were, or could be made, productive in savings. This conformed with the strategy of accelerating the growth rate of industry, with special emphasis on large-scale manufacturing, since saving and reinvestment in this field was the highest (i.e. 75 per cent of profits) in the Second Plan period. However, with a concomitant acceleration in the growth of the agricultural sector, it was also envisaged that the saving base would be broadened, so that *new* savings could be channelled into productive investment through a further expansion of financial institutions.

The intended high marginal rate of saving, amongst other things, also governed the balance of payments strategy in the Third Plan. The Plan target for increasing exports by 9.5 per cent annum, as compared with the 6.5 per cent growth rate in GNP, was crucial to (a) achieving the desired rate of marginal saving and (b) reducing the need for foreign assistance by the end of the Perspective Plan period.

The increase in exports was expected mainly in manufactured goods and in non-traditional items like rice and fish. This meant that particular emphasis had to be placed on the efficiency of the industrial sector, from which increased output and increased exportable surpluses in manufactures were to be obtained. The Plan also visualized new industries as largely export-oriented, and called for the intensification of the import substitution effort, particularly in capital goods and in intermediate products, such as base metals, chemicals, petroleum products, and non-metallic minerals. Furthermore, in the process of resource utilization, emphasis was given to reducing the foreign exchange component per unit of output.

Allocations: The pattern of intersectoral allocations of investment funds followed from the Plan strategy. The high growth rates of GNP, marginal savings, exports, and employment pointed to assigning the highest priority to the industrial sector. Thus, of the total allocation, as much as 22.3 per cent was earmarked for industry, and nearly two-thirds of this for capital goods and intermediate products. As can be seen from Table V, in the order of priorities, after industry, emphasis continued to be placed on transport and communications (20 per cent), water and power (16.4 per cent), and agriculture (15.3 per cent). And again, if the allocation for the development of water resources is added to that for agriculture, the total for the agricultural

sector comes out foremost at about 23 per cent, which is in line with the emphasis placed on it. Education, as in the preceding Plans, continued to receive a relatively low priority (5.1 per cent). A special feature of the Third Plan was the incorporation of the Rural Works Programme in the Plan itself. Accordingly, 3.4 per cent of the total investment funds was earmarked for this programme.

The Third Plan, however, commenced in difficult circumstances. The Aid-to-Pakistan Consortium's pledging session was postponed and the Consortium aid remained virtually suspended for over a year. The Indo-Pakistan armed conflict of September 1965 was also a cause of interruption and dislocation. Just then, the United States Government announced the suspension, and later, the discontinuation of military aid to Pakistan. The resultant shortfall in the supply of arms then had to be made up through an enhancement of defence spending. On top of this situation, bad weather (drought) for two years running led to poor harvests of food crops, necessitating heavier food imports.

The paucity of resources for investment and unexpected new demands for expenditure from domestic savings on the above-mentioned non-productive requirements led to a revision of the Plan strategy, which brought about changes in priorities and sectoral allocations. While the over-all size and main targets of the Plan were maintained, both individual allocations (see Table VIII) and the annual phasing of the Plan were changed, visualizing larger expenditures in the latter half of the Plan period (see Table VII).

The guiding principle underlining the revised strategy was to improve the input-output ratio through: (a) rephasing or postponing capital-intensive projects; (b) giving agriculture a higher priority, which is a field where relatively smaller investments can give high yields, and (c) preferring those industrial projects which would either increase export earnings or would save scarce foreign exchange through import substitution.

An outline of the achievements and shortfalls in the implementation of the Third Plan have already been given at the opening of this chapter. The following sections include an indication of the remedial action contemplated to make up for past shortcomings.

Annual Plans : The uncertainties that a developing country faces, particularly with regard to availability of foreign assistance, make a five-year plan period too long for realistic planning. From 1968/69, the planners have added a new instrument to their armoury, in the form of annual plans. These do not, of course, replace the five-year plan; the latter remains the basic framework. The annual plan offers an opportunity for better programming and more frequent reviews of the economic situation. The innovation has helped to give greater flexibility to the planning processes.

Background for Fourth Plan : In the last two decades, the basic objective of national economic policy was to seek maximum possible economic growth through the encouragement of private enterprise backed by the provision of social, physical and institutional infrastructures by Government. The

desired goals of equitable distribution of incomes had accordingly to wait till the level of production had risen sufficiently to make such distribution possible. During the 1950's, the economy was virtually stagnant. Increase in production barely kept pace with the increase in population. During the Second Plan period (1960-65), the growth rate in production significantly exceeded that in population and the per capita income increased at the rate of nearly 3 per cent per annum. But even after this improvement, at constant factor cost (1959/60 prices), the annual per capita income increased from Rs. 318 in 1960 to only about Rs. 365 by 1965, i.e. about Rs. 120 per month for an average family. This underlines the level of poverty from which the country started, and the long way it has still to travel in winning its war on poverty. Supplementing national resources, the level of foreign assistance continued to accelerate until 1965, but then the climate of foreign assistance deteriorated suddenly, precisely at a time when the country's requirements for development outlays had become both larger and more urgent.

Consequently, the critical requirements of the social sectors, such as education, health and housing, were badly neglected. The squeeze on the urban sector became particularly severe, because its people had to bear a major share of the burden of the additional taxation that had to be imposed to rescue economic development and at the same time face the hardships of inadequate urban community facilities. The conflict between economic growth and social justice therefore became fairly sharp during this period. The common man started demanding a larger share in the economic progress achieved during the 1960s. The workers resented the decline in real wages at a time when industrial expansion was proceeding at a rapid rate. The small farmers, too, felt that the initial gains of higher agricultural productivity were confined mostly to the large, commercial farmers. The less developed areas protested that economic growth was concentrated in a few urban centres and in a few growing areas, while their genuine requirements for development were ignored. The stage was thus set for the social and economic confrontations that took place early in 1969. These basic confrontations occurred against the backdrop of a major political upheaval in the country; but in any frank analysis of development strategy, it should also be recognized that they represented a forceful articulation of the deeply felt aspirations of the masses.

The Fourth Five-Year Plan: The compulsions for a new development strategy were clearly recognized in the 'Socio-Economic Objectives of the Fourth Plan' released in November 1968. In the new strategy, it is felt that there must be far greater emphasis on considerations of social justice, even if this slows the over-all growth rate of the economy. A specific framework of policies to secure better income distribution among various income groups and regions has, therefore, become inevitable.

In the context of these compulsions for a new development strategy, the Fourth Five-Year Plan will be crucial in the development history of Pakistan. Its results will be judged not only in terms of the usual economic indices, but also in terms of the success it achieves in eliminating the sense of

economic deprivation and hardship from all parts of the country and in ensuring greater social justice for underprivileged segments of the population.

Strategy : These considerations have been incorporated in the following principal objectives of the Fourth Plan :

1. To maintain the tempo of development in the country through a determined effort to secure the maximum and most efficient utilization of material and human resources.

2. To reduce inter-regional and intra-regional disparity in per capita income.

3. To make the economy increasingly self-reliant in most essential fields.

4. To move towards a viable synthesis between the claims of economic growth and social justice through the pursuit of pragmatic policies; and to direct the forces of economic and social change towards the establishment of a just society.

The following specific targets have been proposed in line with these objectives:

(1) To attain an annual growth rate of at least 6.5 per cent in GNP, which would permit per capita income to increase from Rs. 584 (Rs. 567 at a population estimate of 132 million, instead of 128.4 million) in 1969/70 to at least Rs. 675 in 1974/75 (at 1969/70 prices).

(2) To reduce the disparity in per capita income between various regions at the fastest possible rate.

(3) To increase per capita consumption of food-grains from 15.5 to 16.8 ounces per day, by increasing rice production by 5.7 million tons, wheat production by 2.6 million tons, and total food-grain production by 8.5 million tons.

(4) To ensure major increases in other items of essential consumption through a specific consumption plan; for instance, an increase in per capita consumption of 24 per cent in cotton textiles, 23 per cent in sugar and 20 per cent in edible oils.

(5) To reduce the extent of unemployment and underemployment in the country by providing 7.5 million new job opportunities, compared with 6.5 million new entrants to the labour force.

(6) To move towards a more equitable distribution of income and wealth by limiting the concentration of industrial wealth; by increased taxation of upper income groups; by fixing minimum wages and salaries; by narrowing down the present differentials in the salary structure; by greater emphasis on social security schemes, and through the provision of more equal opportunities in the economic and social fields.

(7) To evolve an income and price policy through which the increase in per capita income is protected from price erosion.

(8) To increase exports at least at an annual rate of 8.5 per cent.

(9) To improve Pakistan's domestic contribution towards financing the total development expenditure by saving and reinvesting one-fifth of the additional income generated during the Plan period.

(10) To reduce the country's dependence on foreign assistance, net foreign assistance is expected to finance only 21 per cent of the total development expenditure for the Plan period as a whole and 16 per cent in 1974/75.

(11) To move towards greater self-reliance by developing capital goods and defence-oriented industries and by securing major increases in the production of industrial machinery, transport equipment and intermediate products, and achieving additional production of 660 thousand tons of steel, 1.2 million nutrient tons of fertilizer, 4 million tons of cement, 280,000 million cubic feet of natural gas, and Rs. 1,100 million worth of transport equipment and industrial machinery.

(12) To increase the generation capacity of power by 1,740 megawatts, to provide irrigation water to over 5 million additional acres of land and to extend electrification to at least 1,150 additional villages.

(13) To undertake a major flood-control programme in East Pakistan outside the Fourth Plan.

(14) To make sizeable investments in improving communication facilities between the two wings of Pakistan; to link the two wings of the country by a space satellite system; and to increase the number of telephones in the country by 190,000.

(15) To increase the TV coverage in the country to 90 per cent of the population, and to introduce educational TV, including programmes for farmers.

(16) To mobilize the maximum possible financial, human and administrative effort for a decisive change in the education system by increasing the outlay on education to 2.5 times the level of the Third Plan, and by increasing enrolment in primary schools by 5 million, in secondary schools by 1 million, and in institutes for technical education by 280 per cent; to move towards universal enrolment up to Grade V by 1980, and to improve the percentage of literacy in the country from 18 per cent in 1969/70 to 28 per cent in 1974/75, and to at least 42 per cent by the end of the decade.

(17) To protect the entire population from malaria and smallpox, and to bring about a major improvement in the curative health facilities by providing 25,000 additional hospital beds and matching requirements of equipment and medical personnel.

(18) To intensify and expand the programme of family planning so as to prevent 9.6 million births during the Fourth Plan period and to reduce the birth rate from 45 per thousand in 1969/70 to 40 per thousand in 1974/75.

(19) To construct about half a million housing units for low income groups, while restricting the construction of luxury housing.

(20) To launch an urban works programme to improve the environmental conditions in big cities and to cater to the community needs of neglected areas.

Major implications of the endeavour to fulfil these specifide objectives include the following considerations :

(1) About 84 per cent of the development effort by the end of the Fourth Plan will have to be made by the country itself. This naturally means a tremendous effort to mobilize domestic savings and stimulate export

earnings.

(2) An effort will have to be made to attain self-sufficiency in certain key sectors, so as to reduce the vulnerability of the economy to sudden changes in the aid climate. Till last year, Pakistan was importing 10 per cent of its food-grain requirements, 80 per cent of its steel, 65 per cent of its fertilizer, and 75 per cent of its total requirements of capital goods. So far as food-grains are concerned, it is expected that the economy will attain self-sufficiency and enter the export market in a big way during the Fourth Plan Period. Programmes are under way to meet most of the fertilizer requirements from domestic production by 1972. A substantial capacity for steel production is to be established in the Fourth Plan. In the case of capital goods, it is proposed to produce roughly 50 per cent of the total requirements of the economy by 1975.

(3) Integration of defence industries with future development efforts is to be promoted. Basically, a vigorous development effort will itself support and reinforce the defence potential of the country. But at the same time, it is necessary that defence requirements should be carefully identified and built into the productive capacity of the country, so as to reach a position of self-reliance both in respect of development and defence.

(4) As already indicated above, top priority is to be given to the development of the nation's human resources and the use of its own research and technology. In the last analysis, the concept of self-reliance cannot have much meaning unless the country has trained and skilled manpower which can take over the task of development on a growing scale.

The objectives of greater social justice are to be advanced within the following framework:

(1) greater equality of opportunity;

(2) a fair return to the farmers and industrial workers for their labour;

(3) phased introduction of social security and medicare for a growing segment of the population;

(4) greater use of the fiscal machinery to promote better distribution of income and wealth.

A true Islamic society is a human brotherhood marked by the subordination of narrow personal interests to the broad collective good of the community. Unless this fundamental principle of Islam is practised in everyday life, even material progress will be frustrated by the decay of moral and spiritual values, which in turn are the only safeguards against waste and inefficiency resulting from corruption, exploitation and personal greed. The desired synthesis between economic progress and the preservation of values can be achieved by pursuing certain interrelated goals: the establishment of a Welfare State, provision of equal opportunities for all, and action in accordance with moral values, so that a proper balance of rights and responsibilities are maintained in relation to both the individual and the community.

Plan Size and Allocations: Meeting on June 2, 1970, under the Chairmanship of President Yahya Khan, the National Economic Council gave its final

approval to the Fourth Five-Year Plan which was launched, as scheduled, on July 1, 1970, and fixed the size of the total development effort during the Plan period at Rs. 75,000 million, composed of Rs. 49,000 million in the public sector and Rs. 26,000 million in the private sector. This development target includes a tentative earmarking of Rs. 4,500 million for special programmes of flood control in East Pakistan and of the Tarbela Dam in West Pakistan, which are supplementary to the framewok of the Fourth Plan, whose target expenditure amounts to Rs. 70,500 million, including Rs. 44,500 million in the public sector.

Of the Plan target in the public sector, the allocation to East Pakistan amounts to about 63 per cent, while its allocation from the total public sector development effort stands at nearly 60 per cent, with Rs. 29,400 million for East Pakistan and Rs. 19,600 million for West Pakistan. In the private sector, the Plan envisages development expenditures of Rs. 10,000 million in East Pakistan and Rs. 16,000 million in West Pakistan, giving a ratio of 38.5 and 61.5 per cent. The public sector allocations thus help to make up for the lower private sector potential in East Pakistan, bringing its share in the total development effort to 52.5 per cent (Rs. 39,400 million), as against 47.5 per cent (Rs. 35,600 million) in the case of West Pakistan. Of the total increase of Rs. 18,000 in the public sector development effort over the Third Plan target—an increase of over 58 per cent—East Pakistan has been allocated Rs. 15,400 million (86 per cent) and West Pakistan Rs. 2,600 millions (14 per cent).

The allocations made are expected to lead to an annual growth rate of 7.5 per cent in East Pakistan and 5.5 per cent in West Pakistan, which in turn should result in a substantial reduction in inter-regional disparity of income during the Fourth Plan period. The target for the total annual growth rate of the country as a whole is set at 6.5 per cent. While the allocations thus aim at a maximum acceleration of economic growth in East Pakistan, they also provide adequate support to the essential programmes of West Pakistan, permitting the accommodation of larger social programmes and the inclusion of projects to meet the special needs of the less developed areas of West Pakistan.

Financing the Plan : This ambitious Plan—which involves an increase of 106 per cent in public sector outlay compared with the estimated actual expenditure on implementing the Third Plan (about Rs. 21,600 million, excluding the Indus Basin Project)—will naturally require a maximum effort to mobilize financial resources, both within the country and from external sources.

The foreign exchange component for the implementation of the Fourth Plan has been set at Rs. 23,000 million, consisting of foreign assistance amounting to around Rs. 18,000 million and private foreign investment totalling Rs. 5,000 million, as against the actual Third Plan achievement of Rs. 12,000 million in foreign assistance and Rs. 3,000 million as private foreign investment (including foreign exchange loans credits).

On the home front, the Plan provides for an additional taxation of Rs. 7,800 million and a deficit financing of Rs. 3,500 million, as against an

actual additional taxation of Rs. 6,000 million and a deficit financing of Rs. 3,000 million implemented during the Third Plan period Also, in comparison with the ratio of 14 per cent of direct taxation spent on development during 1965-70, during the Fourth Plan (1970-75) this ratio is to be raised to 20 per cent.

While the share of the public sector has been increased from 52 per cent in the implementation of the Third Plan to 63 per cent in the Fourth Plan targets, it has also been indicated that definite steps would be taken to improve the professional management of the public sector units and that these units would have to account for their performance.

Planning Organization

National Economic Council: This Council is the supreme decision-making body in respect of planning and development, and its Chairman is the President. The members include the Provincial Governors, almost all Central Ministers, the Deputy Chairman of the Planning Commission and the Provincial Finance Ministers. The National Economic Council (NEC) performs the following functions :

(i) review of the over-all economic position of the country;

(ii) formulation of plans concerning the economic development of the country and its financial, commercial and economic policies;

(iii) approval of the five-year plans, the annual development programmes, the Central and Provincial public sector projects, schemes in the private sector and all non-plan programmes;

(iv) taking steps for the removal of economic disparity between the Provinces and between different areas within a Province.

The Executive Committee of the National Economic Council (ECNEC) is headed by the Central Finance Minister. Broadly speaking, the functions of ECNEC are :

(a) to sanction development schemes, both in the public and the private sector, pending their approval by the National Economic Council;

(b) to sanction moderate changes in the plans and readjustments in intersectoral priorities within the over-all allocations;

(c) to supervise the implementation of economic policies laid down by the NEC and the Cabinet.

Planning Commission: This Commission is the supreme technical authority for planning and development in Pakistan. It has the status of a Division in the President's Secretariat, with the President himself acting as the Chairman of the Commission. The Deputy Chairman, who has the status of a Central Minister without Cabinet rank, is the operational head of the Commission. In addition to the Chairman and the Deputy Chairman, the Planning Commission includes the Secretary in charge of the Planning Division and members representing the Provinces.

The Commission carries out the following essential functions :

(i) preparation of national plans at periodic intervals;

(ii) preparation of annual development programmes within the frame-

work of the national plan and its priorities in respect of inter- and intra-sectoral allocations of resources;

(iii) approval of development projects and watching and guiding their implementation;

(iv) reporting on the progress of projects;

(v) measurement of performance againts targets;

(vi) identification of causes of delay in the implementation of projects;

(vii) advice on the nature of the requisite machinery for efficient formulation and execution of the national plans;

(viii) periodical assessment of the human and material resources of the country;

(ix) analysis of, and recommendation on, important economic policies and programmes.

The Commission performs these functions with the help of a group of economic and technical sections. The economic sections deal with perspective planning, fiscal and monetary policies, international economics, economic research, and programming. These sections are headed by the Chief Economist. The technical sections deal mainly with specific sectors, of the economy, such as food and agriculture, water and power, industry, education, health, social welfare, and so on.

Provincial Departments : The Planning Commission is the main body for preparing development plans, programmes, and related economic policies, but the Provincial Planning and Development Departments also have responsibilities for the preparation and co-ordination of Provincial plans and programmes and their implementation. The Planning and Development Department of each Province is headed by an Additional Chief Secretary with a Planning Board to advise and assist in all matters relating to planning. The Planning Departments have administrative, economic, foreign aid, and project divisions. The Economic Division is headed by the Chief Economist and, as in the case of the Planning Commission, this Division has several sections staffed by professional economists and other specialists.

The Planning Departments thus have functions similar to those of the Planning Commission in respect of the Provinces. However, the most important day-to-day duties of the Departments are to approve development schemes, prepare and evaluate annual development programmes, and co-ordinate the activities of the development agencies in the Province. The co-ordination with development agencies is achieved mainly through related Departments of the Provincial Government. These Departments perform their planning duties through their own planning cells.

Working Parties : For the processing and approval of individual development schemes, besides the NEC/ECNEC and the Provincial Departments, there are the Provincial Development Working Parties. In East Pakistan, however, this body is referred to as the Provincial Planning Authority.

The Provincial Development Working Party includes the Additional

Chief Secretary (Development), members of the Planning Board, the Planning Department Secretary, the Finance Department Secretary, and the Secretaries of related Development Departments.

Schemes approved by the Provincial Development Working Parties are submitted to the Central Development Working Party functioning with the Planning Commission at the head of affairs. No scheme can be transmitted upwards unless it is sanctioned by the Provincial Development Working Parties and then by the Central Development Working Party. Although the NEC/ECNEC has the final authority to approve or disapprove a scheme, up to a certain level, approval of schemes by the Provincial and Central Development Working Parties is considered to be final.

Scheme Preparations : The preparation of development schemes has gone through a continuous process of change. Although micro-economic programming in Pakistan has not reached the desired level, yet the process has become quite rigorous and complex. In fact this is one of the reasons for Pakistan's success in development planning.

For a scheme to be approved and included in the Development Budget, it must be prepared in a form specified by the Planning Commission, called Form PC-I. Preparation of a PC-I is a difficult and time-consuming process, which requires detailed specification of input and output relationships in both physical and financial terms, technical and financial feasibilities of an approved nature, phasing of expenditures, and the like. For preparing the feasibility reports, the development agencies must secure approval on Form PC-II by the Development Working Parties, which must also approve the consultants, domestic or foreign, to be appointed for the preparation of the feasibility reports.

However, approval of the PC-II does not mean that the corresponding PC-I is automatically approved. When a scheme is finally submitted on PC-I for approval, it is scrutinized by the appropriate Development Department. The scheme is further studied by the Planning Departments, the Planning Commission, the Development Working Parties, and finally by the Executive Committee of the National Economic Council.

Evaluation : Every development agency has to submit quarterly progress reports on each development scheme under implementation in a prescribed form, PC-IV.

In addition, and in order to watch progress, to inspect results, and to locate reasons for delay and other bottlenecks in implementation, there are Project Divisions in the Planning Commission and Planning Departments, staffed with experts in different fields The Project Divisions are linked to district administration through Additional Deputy Commissioners (Development). The implementation process and progress is specially watched by the Provincial Governor through periodic review-meetings with Commissioners and Deputy Commissioners attended by planning and otner development authorities in the Province.

Because of the formal incorporation of the Works Programme in the

Plan, the Planning machinery includes the executive officers at thana and tehsil level and the members of the Union Councils. Furthermore, in preparing related studies for the formulation and evaluation of plans and programmes, the planning authorities associate research organizations in universities and other semi-Government and private organizations.

Until recently, planning in the private sector was done through the preparation of an Investment Schedule and the adoption of requisite policy measures. Since 1967, planning for the private sector has taken a new turn. To achieve better integration with over-all planning, the preparation of an annual programme for the private sector has been initiated. For this, the representatives of trade and industry in the private sector, officials of the Central and Provincial Development Departments and of the Planning Commission and Planning Boards work in close co-operation.

TABLE I

A. Value Composition of GNP at 1959/60 Factor Cost

(Million rupees)

Sectors	1949/50	1954/55	1959/60	1964/65	1965/66	1966/67	1967/68	1968/69	1969/70*
Agriculture	14,669	15,654	16,753	19,761	20,075	20,296	22,504	23,188	24,593
	(60.0)	(56.1)	(53.3)	(48.1)	(46.7)	(45.0)	(46.4)	(45.2)	(45.3)
Manufacturing	1,433	2,220	2,930	4,711	4,949	5,346	5,676	6,153	6,530
	(5.8)	(7.9)	(9.3)	(1.5)	(11.5)	(11.8)	(11.7)	(12.0)	(12.0)
Construction	238	415	651	1,921	1,825	2,052	2,257	2,805	2,728
	(1.0)	(1.5)	(2.1)	(4.7)	(4.2)	(4.5)	(4.7)	(5.5)	(5.0)
Mining	27	45	70	131	137	141	145	151	158
	(0.1)	(0.2)	(0.2)	(0.3)	(0.4)	(0.3)	(0.3)	(0.3)	(0.3)
Services and others**	8,099	9,582	11,035	14,534	15,982	17,298	17,929	18,980	20,267
	(33.1)	(34.3)	(35.1)	(35.4)	(37.2)	(38.4)	(36.9)	(37.0)	(37.4)
TOTAL	24,466	27,908	31,439	41,058	42,968	45,133	48,511	51,287	54,276
	(100)	(100)	(100)	(100)	(100)	(100)	(100)	(100)	(100)
Population	78.72	88.26	98.88	112.41	115.44	118.56	121.76	125.04	128.42
Per Capita GNP—Rs.	311	316	318	365	372	381	399	410	423
(Current)	(253)	(240)	(318)	(405)	(430)	(491)	(506)	(546)	(584)
GNP Growth rate†	—	0.5	4.2	4.5	4.6	5.0	7.5	5.7	5.8

Note : (i) Figures within parenthesis indicate percentage shares of the respective sectors.

*1969/70 figures are provisional.

**Includes net factor income from the rest of the world, a steady Rs. (+) 10 million from 1964/65.

†Per capita annual rate of growth was 0.15 per cent in the First Plan, 2.90 per cent in the Second and 2.99 per cent in the Third rising to 3.17 in 1969/70.

Source : CSO, *Monthly Statistical Bulletin*, October, 1970.

TABLE I

B. Regional GNP at 1959/60 Factor Cost[1]

	1949/50	1959/60	1964/65	1969/70
East Pakistan				
GNP (million rupees)	12,360	14,945	18,559	22,586
Growth rate[2]	—	1.9	4.4	4.0
Per Capita GNP (rupees)	287	278	303	323
Growth rate[2]	—	−0.3	1.8	1.4
Population (million)	43.0	53.85	61.22	69.94
Growth rate[2]	—	2.2	2.6	2.6
West Pakistan				
GNP (million rupees)	12,106	16,494	22,499	31,690
Growth rate[2]	—	3.1	6.4	7.1
Per Capita GNP (rupees)	338	366	440	542
Growth rate[2]	—	0.8	3.8	4.5
Population (million)	35.8	45.03	51.19	58.49
Growth rate[2]	—	2.3	2.6	2.6
All Pakistan				
GNP (million rupees)	24,466	31,439	41,058	54,276
Growth rate[2]	—	2.5	5.5	5.7
Per Capita GNP (rupees)	311	318	365	423
Growth rate[2]	—	0.2	2.9	3.1
Population (million)	78.7	98.88	112.41	128.42
Growth rate[2]	—	2.3	2.6	2.6

[1]Regional GNP figures for 1964/65 and 1969/70 are rough estimates calculated on the basis of growth rates for East Pakistan—4.4 per cent for 1959/60-1964/65 (*The Economy of Pakistan, 1948-68*) and about 4.0 per cent for 1964/65-1969/70 (Planning Commission).

[2]Annual cumulative percentage rate of growth over preceding 10 years in 1959/60, and preceding 5 years in 1964/65 and 1969/70.

(*Note*: The revised, higher population growth rate of 3 per cent between 1959/60 and 1969/70 (see chapter on Family Planning) affects (i) population and (ii) per capita figures for 1964/65 and 1969/70 accordingly, so that these data change as follows for (a) East and (b) West Pakistan: (a)—(i) 62.41 million, 72.36 million, and (ii) Rs. 297, Rs. 314; (b) —(i) 52.19 million, 60.49 million, and (ii) Rs. 431, Rs. 522. The per capita GNP for Pakistan as a whole becomes Rs. 358 in 1964/65 and Rs. 409 in 1969/70. Also see footnote at beginning of chapter, giving slightly higher figures for GNP in 1969/70)

Sources: The Third Five-Year Plan; *The Economy of Pakistan, 1948-68*; *Pakistan Economic Survey, 1969-70.*

TABLE II

Size and Sectoral Allocations under the First and Second Plan

(Million rupees)

Sector	First Plan (1955-60)				Second Plan (1960-65)			
	Public	Private	Total	% of Total expenditure	Public	Private	Total	% of Total expenditure
1. Agriculture	1,207	—	1,207	9.5	2,515	905	3,420	14.9
2. Water and Power	2,697	—	2,697	21.3	4,140	250	4,390	19.1
3. Industry	1,622	1,750	3,372	26.7	1,460	3,660	5,120	22.3
4. Fuels and Minerals	—	—	—	—	450	550	1,000	4.3
5. Transport and Communication	1,666	450	2,116	16.7	2,725	1,325	4,050	17.6
6. Physical Planning & Housing	861	800	1,661	13.1	1,885	1,525	3,410	14.8
7. Education and Training	580	—	580	4.6	955	100	1,055	4.6
8. Health	288	—	288	2.3	370	50	420	1.8
9. Social Welfare }	133	—	133	1.0	85	15	100	0.4
10. Manpower }								
11. Works Programme	298	—	298	2.4	35	—	35	
12. Miscellaneous	—	300	300	2.4	—	—	—	—
Total	9,352	3,300	12,652	100.0	14,620	8,380	23,000	100.0
Less Shortfall	1,852	—	1,852	—	—	—	—	—
NET TOTAL	7,500	3,300	10,800	—	14,620	8,380	23,000	—

Source : Planning Commission, *First and Second Five-Year Plans.*

Note : 2nd Plan also includes Rs. 1,600 million under Rural Works Programme making the size worth Rs. 24,600 millions. Investments in the Indus Basin replacement projects and a Rs. 5,900 million Master Plan for Waterlogging and Salinity to provide further aid to agriculture.

TABLE III

Regional and Sectoral Distribution of Public Sector Development Expenditure During the Second Plan Period (1960-65)

(Million rupees)

Sector	Centre	East Pakistan	West Pakistan	Total expenditure	Total Plan Target	Col. (4) as % of Col. (5)
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Agriculture	306	802	748	1,856	2,515	74
Manufacturing and Mining	682	651	294	1,627	1,910	85
Water and Power	316	1,434	2,591	4,341	4,140	105
Transport and Communications	1,206	856	1,010	3,072	2,725	113
Physical Planning and Housing	557	624	485	1,666	1,885	88
Education and Training	107	415	391	913	955	96
Health and Medical Services	49	195	156	400	370	108
Social Welfare and Manpower	18	40	17	75	120	63
Total	3,241	5,017	5,692	13,950	14,620	95

Source : Planning Commission, *Final Evaluation of the Second Five-Year Plan.*

TABLE IV

Basic Framework of Pakistan's Long-term Growth 1965-85 in 1964-65 prices

(Million rupees)

	1965	1970	1975	1980	1985	1965/85 (annual compound rate of growth[1] %
A. *Key Magnitudes*						
1. Gross national product (market prices)	45,540	62,765	89,815	129,690	187,300	7.2
2. Gross investment	8,400	12,700	19,180	28,650	42,800	8.5
3. Gross domestic savings	4,710	8,515	15,180	26,150	40,800	11.4
4. External resources	3,690	4,185	4,000	2,500	2,000	−3.0
5. Exports	3,050	4,800	7,300	11,000	14,000	7.9
6. Imports	6,990	8,985	11,300	13,500	16,000	4.2
B. *As a % of the GNP*						
1. Gross investment[2]	18.4	20.2	21.4	22.1	22.9	
2. Gross domestic savings[2]	10.3	13.6	16.9	20.2	21.8	
3. External resources[2]	8.1	6.6	4.5	1.9	1.1	
4. Exports[2]	6.7	7.6	8.1	8.5	7.5	
5. Imports[2]	15.3	14.2	12.6	10.4	8.6	
C. *Key Assumptions*						
1. GNP growth rate (%)[2]	5.2	6.5	7.3	7.5	7.5	7.2
2. Population growth rate (%)[2]	2.6	2.7	2.8	2.6	2.1	2.6
3. Marginal rate of savings (%)[3]	22	22	25	28	25	25
4. Capital-output ratio (gross) [2,3]	2.8	2.9	2.9	2.9	3.0	2.9
5. Marginal propensity to import (%)[2]	—	12	9	6	4	6

Notes: [1] In the preceding 20 years.
[2] In the preceding 5 years.
[3] Assuming no time-lag between investment and output.

Source: Planning Commission.

TABLE V

Sectoral and Regional Allocation of Resources of the Third Five-Year Plan 1965-70 (Revised)

(Million rupees)

Sector	East Pakistan			West Pakistan			Pakistan	
	Public	Private	Total	Public	Private	Total	Total	Percentage
1. Agriculture	2,299	2,100	4,399	1,816	1,900	3,716	8,115	15.3
2. Water and Power	3,660	100	3,760	4,387	550	4,937	8,697	16.4
3. Industry	2,432	3,800	6,232	1,081	4,500	5,581	11,813	22.3
4. Fuel and Minerals	325	300	625	276	450	717	1,342	2.5
5. Transport and Communication	3,280	2,100	5,380	3,431	1,800	5,231	10,611	20.0
6. Physical Planning and Housing	1,364	2,350	3,714	1,113	1,650	2,763	6,477	12.2
7. Education and Training	1,308	200	1,508	1,066	100	1,166	2,674	5.1
8. Health	631	20	651	544	20	564	1,215	2.3
9. Social Welfare	50	20	70	40	20	60	130	0.3
10. Manpower	51	10	61	35	10	45	106	0.2
11. Works Programme	1,200	—	1,200	620	—	620	1,820	3.4
Total	16,600	11,000	27,600	14,400	11,000	25,400	53,000	100.0
Less Expected shortfall	—600	—	—600	—400	—	400	1,000	
NET TOTAL	16,000	11,000	27,000	14,000	11,000	25,000	52,000	

Source : Planning Commission.
Note : Regional allocations include Central expenditures.

TABLE VI

Sources of Finance for Third Five-Year Plan
Original and Revised Estimates

(Million rupees)

	Original estimate	Revised estimates
Government Financed Sector		
Domestic Resources		
Surplus on Revenue Account		
Centre	7,930	5,830*
East Pakistan	380	1,215*
West Pakistan	290	1,370*
Additional Taxation	3,000	
Possible Additional Taxation in the remaining three years of the Plan		900
Sub-Total	11,600	9,315
Net Capital Receipts :		
Centre	550	1,265
East Pakistan	580	680
West Pakistan	1,270	1,240
Sub-Total	2,400	3,185
Deficit Financing	1,500	3,000**
Possible Additional Resources	1,000	1,000
Sub-Total	16,500	16,500
External Resources		
Project Loans (including technical assistance)	7,000	7,000
Commodity Loans	5,500	5,500
PL-480 Counterpart Funds	1,000	1,000
Sub-Total	13,500	13,500
Total Government Financed Sector	30,000	30,000
Privately Financed Sector		
Private Domestic Savings	19,000	19,000
Loans and Credits in Foreign Exchange	2,300	2,300
Private Foreign Investment	700	700
Total	22,000	22,000
GRAND TOTAL	52,000	52,000

Source : Third Five-Year Plan.

*The revised estimate of revenue surplus includes likely realization from additional taxation imposed in 1965/66 and 1966/67.

**This includes Rs. 1,700 million of deficit financing already incurred in the first two years of the Plan.

TABLE VII

Revised Phasing of the Third Plan

(Million rupees)

Year	Government Financed Sector		Private Sector		Total	
	Original phasing	Revised phasing	Original phasing	Revised phasing	Original phasing	Revised phasing
1965/66	4,700	3,420	3,700	3,700	8,400	7,120
1966/67	5,300	5,000	4,050	4,000	9,350	9,000
1967/68	6,000	6,000	4,350	4,300	10,350	10,300
1968/69	6,700	7,100	4,700	4,800	11,400	11,900
1969/70	7,300	8,480	5,200	5,200	12,500	13,680
1965/70	30,000	30,000	22,000	22,000	52,000	52,000

Source : Third Five-Year Plan.

TABLE VIII

Third Plan Original and Revised Allocations in the Public Sector

(Million rupees)

Sector	Original allocation May, 1965	Revised allocation December, 1966
Agriculture	4,670	4,115
Water and Power	8,400	8,047
Industry, Fuels and Minerals	5,160	4,105
Transport and Communications	6,460	6,711
Physical Planning and Housing	3,025	2,477
Education and Training	2,730	2,374
Health and Family Planning	1,330	1,175
Social Welfare	125	90
Manpower	100	86
Works Programme	2,500	1,820
Total	34,500	31,000
Less anticipated shortfall	−4,500	−1,000
NET TOTAL	30,000	30,000

TABLE IX

Public Sector Development Expenditure during the Third Plan

A. All Pakistan

(Million rupees)

S. No.	Sector	1965/66 (Actual)	1966/67 (Actual)	1967/68 (Actual)	1968/69 (Actual)	1969/70 Revised Estimates	1965-70 Total estimate Expenditure	Third Plan allocation (1965-70)	Percentage achievement Col. 8 of Col. 9
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
1.	Agriculture	312.51	422.12	572.77	726.21	946.67	2,980.28[a]	4,115.27	72
2.	Manufacturing	295.86	384.34	533.39	608.16	509.39	2,331.14	3,513.35	66
3.	Mining	77.08	101.63	120.38	100.20	110.97	510.26	692.00	86
4.	Water	445.68	592.19	623.76	571.89	604.52	2,838.04[b]	4,198.94	68
5.	Power	409.92	522.08	678.84	919.28	979.55	3,509.67	3,848.35	91
6.	Transport and Communications	672.83	845.91	935.73	917.42	940.11	4,312.00	6,710.85	64
7.	Physical Planning and Housing	277.29	332.53	332.78	337.29	356.11	1,636.00	2,476.83	66
8.	Education and Training	137.52	194.48	261.09	302.67	432.56	1,328.32	2,374.55	56
9.	Health and Family Planning	143.33	126.01	196.16	218.95	227.55	912.00[c]	1,174.53	77
10.	Manpower Training and Labour	3.45	7.48	7.33	9.52	21.78	49.56	85.60	58
11.	Social Welfare	5.94	6.41	11.39	12.44	15.28	51.47	90.32	57
12.	Works Programme	189.00	170.00	241.00	251.00	285.00	1,136.00	1,820.00	62
	Total	2,970.41	3,705.18	4,514.62	4,975.03	5,429.49	21,594.733	1,000.00	72
	Less Expected Shortfall	—	—	—	—	—	—	1,000.00	—
	TOTAL (NET)	2,970.41	3,705.18	4,514.62	4,975.03	5,429.49	21,594.73	30,000.00	72

a Includes rural credit (Taccavi), but not special expenditure on 'undeveloped areas' amounting to Rs. 24.06 million.

b Does not include expenditure on Indus Basin Works and Flood Control Programme, on which an estimated Rs. 3,620 million have been spent in the Plan period.

c According to more recent estimates, this figure is raised to Rs. 994 million, with Rs. 638 million for Health and Rs. 358 million for Family Planning.

TABLE IX—*(Contd.)*

Public Sector Development Expenditure during the Third Plan

B. East Pakistan

(Million rupees)

S. No.	Sector	1965/66 (Actual)	1966/67 (Actual)	1967/68 (Actual)	1968/69 (Actual)	1969/70 (Revised estimates)	1965-70 (Total estimated expenditure)	Third Plan allocation (1965/70)	Percentage achievement (Col. 8 of Col. 9)
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
1.	Agriculture	120.05	206.82	293.42*	370.55	593.27	1,584.11*	2,121.35	75
2.	Manufacturing	209.58	241.69	321.53	343.85	350.62	1,467.27	2,339.35	63
3.	Mining	3.04	5.60	7.02	7.13	11.65	34.44	75.00	46
4.	Water	209.25	281.08	295.59	236.16	290.00	1,312.08	3,960.00	67
5.	Power	123.27	243.13	330.48	518.03	495.00	1,709.91	1,550.00	110
6.	Transport and Communications	206.29	185.09	236.64	239.39	289.59	1,157.00	2,250.11	51
7.	Physical Planning and Housing	78.55	126.12	138.01	131.01	167.31	641.00	1,008.42	64
8.	Education and Training	75.18	118.93	154.20	159.49	236.29	744.09	1,238.20	60
9.	Health and Family Planning	75.13	67.66	87.68	106.65	103.65	440.77	561.57	78
10.	Manpower Training and Labour	2.26	4.52	3.94	4.56	6.96	22.24	46.00	48
11.	Social Welfare	1.26	2.01	4.43	2.21	3.14	13.05	40.00	33
12.	Works Programme	101.00	150.00	183.00	196.00	210.00	840.00	1,200.00	70
	TOTAL	1,204.86	1,632.65	2,055.94	2,315.03	2,757.48	9,965.96	14,390.00	70

*Subject to revision.

TABLE IX—(*Contd.*)

Public Sector Development Expenditure during the Third Plan

C. West Pakistan

(Million rupees)

S. No.	Sector	1965/66 (Actual)	1966/67 (Actual)	1967/68 (Actual)	1968/69 (Actual)	1969/70 (Revised esti-mates)	1965-70 (Total estimated expenditure)	Third Plan allocation (1965-70)	(Percentage achieve-ment (Col. 8 of Col. 9)
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
1.	Agriculture	172.01	183.17	245.45	290.38	254.86	1,145.87	1,621.87	71
2.	Manufacturing	54.63	101.84	171.89	236.53	125.54	690.43	966.00	72
3.	Mining	13.92	11.36	23.82	11.38	4.75	65.23	60.00	109
4.	Water	228.91	303.79	322.87	329.77	304.25	1,491.59	2,180.97	68
5.	Power	222.15	237.80	262.88	272.05	396.94	1,391.82	1,925.75	72
6.	Transport and Communications	270.83	354.24	403.18	358.70	363.05	1,750.00	2,350.00	74
7.	Physical Planning and Housing	43.61	74.91	64.31	81.72	101.45	366.00	739.32	49
8.	Education and Training	56.74	63.01	87.66	109.49	166.24	483.14	988.20	49
9.	Health and Family Planning	56.20	44.71	94.83	93.13	105.44	394.31	507.94	86
10.	Manpower Training and Labour	1.19	2.94	2.89	3.46	14.11	24.59	30.10	82
11.	Social Welfare	1.89	1.20	3.12	4.81	6.45	17.47	30.32	58
12.	Works Programme	86.00	17.00	54.00	52.00	71.00	280.00	600.00	46
	TOTAL	1,208.00	1,397.97	1,736.90	1,843.42	1,914.08	8,100.45	12,000.27	68

TABLE X—(*Contd.*)

Public Sector Development Expenditure during the Third Plan

D. Centre

(Million rupees)

S. No.	Sector	1965/66 (Actual)	1966/67 (Actual)	1967/68 (Actual)	1968/69 (Actual)	1969/70 Revised (estimates)	1965-70 (Total estimated expenditure)	Third Plan location (1965-70)	Percentage Achievement Col. 8 of Col. 9)
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
1.	Agriculture	20.45	32.13	33.90	65.28	98.54	250.30	372.04	67
2.	Manufacturing	31.65	40.81	39.97	27.78	33.23	173.44	208.00	83
3.	Mining	60.12	34.67	89.54	81.69	94.57	410.59	457.00	90
4.	Water	7.52	5.32	5.30	5.96	10.27	34.37	57.97	59
5.	Power	64.50	41.15	85.48	129.20	87.61	407.94	372.60	109
6.	Transport and Communications	195.71	506.58	295.91	319.33	287.47	1,405.00	2,110.75	67
7.	Physical Planning and Housing	155.13	131.50	130.46	124.66	87.35	629.00	729.09	86
8.	Education and Training	5.60	12.54	19.23	33.69	30.03	101.09	148.15	68
9.	Health and Family Planning	12.00	13.64	13.65	19.17	18.46	76.92	105.02	74
10.	Manpower Training and Labour	—	0.02	0.50	1.50	0.71	2.73	9.50	29
11.	Social Welfare	2.79	3.20	3.84	5.42	5.69	20.94	20.00	105
12.	Works Programme	2.00	3.00	4.00	3.00	4.00	16.00	20.00	80
	TOTAL	557.47	674.56	721.78	816.58	757.93	3,528.32	4,610.13	77

TABLE X

Public Sector Regional Expenditure

1965/66—1969/70

A. East Pakistan

(Million rupees)

S. No.	Sector	1965/66 (Actual)			1966/67 (Actual)			1967/68 (Actual)		
		Central Expd.	Provincial Expd.	Total Expd.	Central Expd.	Provincial Expd.	Total Expd.	Central Expd.	Provincial Expd.	Total Expd.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)
1.	Agriculture	7.63	120.05	127.68	16.13	206.82	222.95	14.84	293.42	308.26
2.	Manufacturing	15.58	209.58	225.16	19.36	241.69	261.05	18.71	321.53	340.24
3.	Mining	30.06	3.04	33.10	42.34	5.60	47.94	44.77	7.02	51.79
4.	Water	2.35	209.25	211.60	2.10	281.08	283.18	2.10	295.59	297.69
5.	Power	7.55	123.27	130.82	6.05	243.13	249.18	6.28	330.48	336.76
6.	Transport and Communications	73.62	206.29	279.91	127.02	185.09	312.11	116.46	236.64	353.10
7.	Physical and Planning ousing	76.94	78.55	155.49	65.14	126.12	191.26	63.87	138.01	201.88
8.	Education and Training	2.64	75.18	77.82	5.79	118.93	124.72	8.94	154.20	163.14
9.	Health and Family Planning	7.00	75.13	82.13	7.90	67.66	75.56	7.85	87.68	95.53
10.	Manpower Training and Labour	—	2.26	2.26	—	4.52	4.52	0.30	3.94	4.24
11.	Social Welfare	1.37	1.26	2.63	1.59	2.01	3.60	1.87	4.43	6.30
12.	Works Programme	—	101.00	101.00	—	150.00	150.00	—	183.00	183.00
	TOTAL	224.74	1,204.86	1,429.60	293.42	1,632.65	1,926.07	285.99	2,055.94	2,341.93

TABLE X

Public Sector Regional Expenditure

1965/66—1969/70

A. East Pakistan (Contd). (Million rupees)

S. No.	Sector	1968/69 Actual			1969/70 (Revised Estimates)			1965/70 (Total estimated expenditure)		
		Central Expd. (12)	Provincial Expd. (13)	Total Expd. (14)	Central Expd. (15)	Provincial Expd. (16)	Total Expd. (17)	Central Expd. (18)	Provincial Expd. (19)	Total Expd. (20)
1.	Agriculture	29.87	370.55	400.42	37.35	593.27	631.12	106.32	1,584.11	1,690.43
2.	Manufacturing	11.07	343.85	354.92	12.23	350.62	363.85	77.95	1,467.27	1,545.22
3.	Mining	40.84	7.13	47.97	47.28	11.65	58.93	205.29	34.44	239.73
4.	Water	2.24	236.16	238.40	4.13	290.00	294.13	12.92	1,312.08	1,325.00
5.	Power	7.44	518.03	525.47	12.08	495.00	507.08	39.40	1,709.91	1,749.31
6.	Transport and Communications	132.20	239.39	371.59	122.56	289.59	412.15	571.86	1,157.00	1,728.86
7.	Physical Planning and Housing	60.27	131.01	191.28	41.17	167.31	208.48	307.39	641.00	948.39
8.	Education and Training	16.06	159.49	175.55	13.98	236.29	250.27	47.41	744.09	791.50
9.	Health and Family Planning	11.23	106.65	117.88	11.20	103.65	114.85	45.18	440.77	485.95
10.	Manpower Training and Labour	1.00	4.56	5.56	—	6.96	6.96	1.30	22.24	23.54
11.	Social Welfare Services	2.67	2.21	4.88	2.80	3.14	5.94	10.30	13.05	23.35
12.	Works Programme	—	196.00	196.00	—	210.00	210.00	—	840.00	840.00
	TOTAL	314.89	2,315.03	2,629.92	306.28	2,757.48	3,063.76	1,425.32	9,965.96	11,391.28

TABLE X

Public Sector Regional Expenditure

1965/66—1969/70

B. West Pakistan

(Million rupees)

S. No. (1)	Sub-Sector (2)	1965/66 (Actual) Central Expd. (3)	Provincial Expd. (4)	Total Expd. (5)	1966/67 (Actual) Central Expd. (6)	Provincial Expd. (7)	Total Expd. (8)	1967/68 (Actual) Central Expd. (9)	Provincial Expd. (10)	Total- Expd (11)
1.	Agriculture	12.82	172.01	184.83	16.00	183.17	199.17	19.06	245.45	264.51
2.	Manufacturing	16.07	54.63	70.70	21.45	101.84	123.29	21.26	171.89	198.15
3.	Mining	30.06	13.92	43.98	42.33	11.36	58.69	44.77	23.82	68.69
4.	Water	5.17	228.91	234.08	3.22	305.79	309.01	3.20	322.87	826.07
5.	Power	56.95	222.15	279.10	35.10	237.80	272.90	79.20	262.88	342.08
6.	Transport and Communications	122.09	270.83	392.92	179.56	354.24	533.80	179.45	403.18	582.68
7.	Physical Planning and Housing	78.19	43.61	121.80	66.36	74.91	141.27	66.59	64.31	130.90
8.	Education and Training	2.96	56.74	59.70	6.75	68.01	69.76	10.29	87.66	97.95
9.	Health and Family Planning	5.00	56.20	61.20	5.74	44.71	50.45	5.80	94.83	100.63
10.	Manpower Tra'ning Labour	—	1.19	1.19	0.02	2.94	2.96	0.20	2.89	3.09
11.	Social Welfare	1.42	1.89	3.31	1.61	1.20	2.81	1.97	3.12	5.09
12.	Works Programme	2.00	86.00	88.00	3.00	17.00	20.00	4.00	54.00	58.00
	TOTAL	332.73	1,208.08	1,540.81	381.14	1,397.97	1,779.11	435.79	1,7376.0	2,172.69

TABLE X

Public Sector Regional Expenditure

1965/66—1969/70

B. West Pakistan—(Contd.)

(Million rupees)

S. No.	Sector	1968/69 Actual			1969/70 (Revised estimates)			1965-70 (Total estimated Expenditure)		
		Central Expd.	Provincial Expd.	Total Expd.	Central Expd.	Provincial Expd.	Total Expd.	Central Expd.	Provincial Expd.	Total Expd.
		(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)	(20)
1.	Agriculture	35.41	290.38	325.79	60.69	254.86	215.55	143.98	1,145.87	1,289.85
2.	Manufacturing	16.71	236.53	253.24	20.00	125.54	145.54	95.49	690.43	785.92
3.	Mining	40.85	11.38	52.23	47.29	4.75	52.04	205.30	65.23	270.53
4.	Water	3.72	329.77	333.49	6.14	304.25	310.39	21.45	1,491.59	1,513.04
5.	Power	121.76	272.05	393.81	75.53	396.94	472.47	868.54	1,391.82	1,760.36
6.	Transport and Communications	187.13	358.70	545.83	164.91	363.05	527.96	833.14	1,750.00	2,583.14
7.	Physical Planning and Housing	64.29	81.72	146.01	46.18	101.45	147.68	321.61	366.00	687.61
8.	Education and Training	17.63	109.49	127.12	16.05	166.24	182.24	53.68	483.14	536.82
9.	Healthand Family Planning	7.94	93.13	101.07	7.26	105.44	112.70	31.74	394.31	426.05
10.	Manpower Training and Labour	0.50	3.46	3.96	0.71	14.11	14.82	1.43	24.59	26.02
11.	Social Welfare	2.75	4.81	7.56	2.89	6.45	9.84	10.64	17.47	28.11
12.	Works Programme	3.00	52.00	55.00	4.00	71.00	73.00	16.00	280.00	296.00
	TOTAL	501.69	1,843.42	2,345.11	451.65	1,914.08	2,365.73	2,103.00	8,100.45	10,203.45

TABLE XI

Regional Allocations in the Fourth Five-year Plan 1970-75

(Million rupees)

Particulars	Total	East Pakistan		West Pakistan	
A. Plan Allocations					
Public Sector	44,500	27,900	(62.7%)	16,600	(37.3%)
Private Sector	26,000	10,000	(38.5%)	16,000	(61.5%)
Total	70,500	37,900	(53.8%)	32,600	(46.2%)
B. Outside Plan					
Flood Control	1,500	1,500		—	
Indus Basin	3,000	—		3,000	
Total	4,500	1,500		3,000	
C. Total Development Programme					
Public Sector	49,000	29,400	(60.0%)	19,600	(40%)
Private Sector	26,000	10,000	(38.5%)	16,000	(61.5%)
TOTAL	75,000	39,400	(52.5%)	35,600	(47.5%)

Source: Fourth Five-Year Plan.



Fishing in a Rajshahi village pond, East Pakistan.

Agriculture

PLACING a high priority on promoting rapid progress in agriculture and, in particular, on the achievement of self-sufficiency in meeting the country's food requirements, the Third Five-Year plan had aimed at developing agriculture —including animal husbandry, forestry and fisheries as well as crop production —at an average annual growth rate of 5 per cent, compared with an actual growth rate of 3.4 per cent achieved in the Second Plan period and 1.4 per cent under the First Plan. Against the Third Plan objective, actual achievement is estimated at an average annual growth rate of 4.5 per cent. The extent of the achievement is underlined when it is remembered that, mainly owing to bad weather, in the first two years of the Plan the annual growth rate amounted to no more than 1.4 per cent. It was only in the third year that cumulative efforts bore fruit in the form of a record growth of about 10 per cent, bringing the average for the first three years to 3.2 per cent. Over this performance, growth in 1968/69 amounted to 4.1 per cent; and in the following, fifth and final year of the Plan, the growth is estimated at about 6 per cent.

On the other hand, in regional terms, development of agriculture has been unbalanced, as the annual growth rate in East Pakistan came to only 3.2 per cent compared with 5.9 per cent in West Pakistan. It is now evident that to correct this imbalance, in addition to the effective implementation of flood-control programmes, it will also be necessary to move ahead with stepping up the per acre yields of the region's major crops of rice and jute. The importance of this is even further emphasized by the comparatively small per capita cultivated and cultivable land available in East Pakistan, as outlined below.

While West Pakistan became basically self-sufficient in food, needing

relatively small quantities of imports, mainly to meet off-take requirements of wheat, East Pakistan continued to encounter substantial shortages. In 1969/70, due to extensive losses caused by floods, it actually needed an additional 1.7 million tons of food-grains to meet its requirements. It was accordingly decided, at the October 1969 Governor's Conference, that 155,000 tons of wheat and 335,000 tons of rice would be supplied from West Pakistan, and the balance of 1,080,000 tons of wheat and 130,000 tons of rice from foreign countries.

According to CSO calculations, the situation of food-grains available for consumption—after deducting 10 per cent of output for seed, animal consumption and wastage, and adding the net balance of imports and exports of food—not only kept pace with population increase, but also improved somewhat in the 10-year period of 1959/60-1968/69 on the previous 10-year period of 1949/50-1958/59. In the first period, per capita availability of food grains amounted to an average of 14.78 ounces per day, within a range of 14.03 ounces in 1966/67 to 16.57 ounces in 1967/68, as against a corresponding per capita average for the previous 10-year period of 13.44 ounces per day, within a range of 11.53 ounces in 1955/56 to 15.13 ounces in 1953/54. Import of food-grains in the first nine years of 1959/60—1968/69 were substantial, ranging between 1,054,000 tons in 1961/62 and 2,271,000 tons in 1967/68, but then in 1968/69 such imports were reduced to 821,000 tons, while retaining a per capita food-availability of 15.38 ounces per day. (Concerning the problem of rising food prices, see the section on Prices in the chapter on Private Enterprise and Commerce).

The Agricultural Scene: Agriculture, with its associated sub-sectors of animal husbandry, forestry and fisheries, constitutes the largest segment of the country's economy. The agricultural sector's contribution to GNP is nearly half the total (45.0 per cent in 1969/70). About 70 per cent of the nation's total exports consist of raw and processed agricultural produce, and 86 per cent are based on agricultural raw materials. A preponderant majority of the population, around 87 per cent, lives in rural areas, and is directly or indirectly dependent on agriculture—about 74 per cent of the civilian labour force is engaged in agricultural occupations.

About 97 to 98 per cent of the agricultural labour force in both zones of the country work as cultivators and agricultural labourers. The rest are engaged as orchard and nursery workers, malis, market gardeners, tea-garden labourers, dairy farmers, poultry keepers, herdsmen, animal breeders, bee keepers, silk-worm keepers, other breeders, operators of farm tractors and other machines, hunters and trappers.

One of the big problems of life in the agricultural sector is widespread underemployment. Only a very small percentage of the agricultural labour force is engaged in subsidiary occupations, and according to the census of 1951 and 1961, the percentage of persons pursuing such occupations dropped sharply between 1951 and 1961 from 13.26 to 5.19 per cent in East Pakistan, and from 4.45 to 3.31 per cent in West Pakistan. It may, however, be realistically estimated that, with the progress of rural development works



Mechanized cultivation in East Pakistan.

and some improvement in the farmer's purchasing power, such supplementary occupations will also have been on the increase. They include work in the following fields: professional and technical; teaching; administrative and clerical; shop-keeping and other sales activities; forestry and fishing; quarrying; transport; food, drink and tobacco processing; textile and leather manufacturing and handicrafts; other manufacturing and handicrafts (especially pottery and basket weaving); building and construction; service work; and as many as 47 miscellaneous specific jobs of workers like *hakims*, carpenters, tailors, barbers, and brick layers.

While the total area of Pakistan extends over 234 million acres, the total cultivated area is about 70 million acres, i.e. 30 per cent of the total area. But while only 24 per cent of the area of West Pakistan is under cultivation, the ratio for East Pakistan is 63 per cent. Similarly, while only 3 per cent of the Western zone is forested, in the Eastern zone over 15 per cent of the area is forested.

However, in absolute terms, the cultivated area in West Pakistan, at 47.6 million acres, is more than double that of 22.5 million acres in East Pakistan; and in addition, West Pakistan possesses a further 31.4 million acres (15.8 per cent of the total area) of cultivable land (excluding current fallow) as against only 1.1 million acres (3.1 per cent of the total area) of such additional land in East Pakistan. The actual forested area in both regions is about the same at 5.6 in the West and 5.5 million acres in the East. In these facts, combined with the population situation, there is a built-in natural disparity between the two regions—per capita cultivated land (according

to statistics for 1967/68) in West Pakistan amounts to 0.86 acres as against 0.34 acres in East Pakistan (156 per cent less than in the West). When cultivable land is added, this difference is further enhanced to a per capita ratio of 1.42 acres in the West to 0.36 acres in East Pakistan—a ratio which in relative terms would be maintained with the projected rates of population growth for the two regions. Given equally efficient exploitation of cultivable land in the two regions (with due allowance for possibilities of more intensive cropping practices in East Pakistan) the economic disparity this situation implies can only be resolved on a nation-wide, not a regional basis, in which the people of East Pakistan share in the advantages of the larger expanse of cultivated and cultivable land in West Pakistan.

According to the 1961 census, more than 32 per cent of the cultivators owned all the land they tilled and some 9 per cent part of the land tilled, while less than 15 per cent were landless agricultural labourers. Detailed figures of the percentage distribution of cultivators (aged 10 years and over) by land tenure, according to this census, are given below:

Percentage Distribution of Cultivators, 1961

	All cultivators		Owning all land tilled	Tilling land partly owned & partly rented	Renting all land tilled	Unpaid family help	Share Crop-pers	Land-less agri-cultural labour-ers
	No. in thousands	%						
Pakistan	**21,796**	**100**	**32.13**	**9.37**	**10.20**	**31.57**	**2.38**	**14.35**
East	14,604	100	35.33	9.37	1.28	33.02	3.55	17.45
West	7,192	100	25.62	9.37	28.32	28.62	—	8.05

A big change in the life and work of farmers has come about as a result of the adoption of new agricultural techniques, including the use of canal and tube-well irrigation, chemical fertilizers, tractors and other mechanical farm implements. Improved communications and transport, rural schools and health services have also helped to increase the productivity of the farmer, for which Government-guaranteed prices plus adequate marketing facilities provide a constant incentive. It is only as a result of all these factors that the country is on the threshold of self-sufficiency in food, and beyond it, to exporting food surpluses.

Together with the over-all aim of achieving an annual growth rate of 5 per cent in the agricultural sector, the Third Plan adopted the following other broad objectives for agricultural development:

(a) to increase the real income of farmers at least at the same rate



A Rice field at Comilla, East Pakistan.

as the per capita increase in the non-agricultural sector;

(b) to move towards self-sufficiency in the nation's food requirements to the fullest extent compatible with other needs of the economy, including foreign trade, aiming at the same time, at improved nutritional standards in food consumption ; and

(c) to promote agricultural development on a sound, self-sufficient basis by further improvements in agricultural organization, and by intensified programmes, such as the development of marketing, co-operatives, storage, credit, educational and other institutional and infrastructural facilities.

A number of Government agencies serve the agricultural sector and promote development activities. In the executive sense, agriculture is a Provincial subject, and the implementation of nearly all the executive work carried out is the responsibility of the Provincial Governments. The Ministry of Agriculture in the Central Government is responsible for co-ordination, planning, agricultural census and statistics, maintenance of adequate reserves, and for dealing with foreign agencies. Each Province has a

Department of Agriculture which comprises a number of technical directorates concerned with different subjects in the agricultural sector: crop production (agriculture proper), animal husbandry, forestry, and so on. In each zone of the country, there is also an Agricultural Development Corporation, which supplies farmers with seed, fertilizer, advice, equipment on loan, and also promotes intensive development work in selected project areas and fields of activity.

A recently established study group on agricultural policy, including 19 experts and headed by the Secretary of Agriculture, has submitted its report in March 1970, and this has been circulated to provincial Governments and relevant agricultural agencies for their comment.

Crop Prdouction: Marjor crops grown in Pakistan include rice, wheat, maize, jawar, baira, gram, pulses, sugarcane, jute, cotton, oil seeds, tea and tobacco. Of these, all the jute and tea and most of the rice is produced in East Pakistan, while West Pakistan, with a more diversified pattern of crops, including a 17 per cent share in the total prodution of rice, produces almost all the wheat and other food-grains, practically all the cotton, most of the sugarcane and tobacco, and over 62 per cent of the oil seeds (rape, mustard and sesamum). The acreage and production of the crops is shown in Tables III and IV.

The response of the Pakistani farmer to all that the Government is doing to promote agrarian change is positive, and indeed enthusiastic, so that the results achieved are highly encouraging. As the Minister for Agiculture and Works, Mr. Mahmood A. Haroon, said in 1969, "All tributes are due to our farmers, who in tune with the Islamic spirit, have taken zealously to the pursuit of agricultural knowledge, which is a vital part of our lost heritage. All tributes are due to our cultivators in the fields for

Mechanized harvesting of wheat in the Panjab.





A tractor tilling land near Hyderabad, Sind.

their untiring efforts in every vicissitude of weather. It is because of these honest simple folk that Pakistan's agricultural development has been recognized as phenomenal."

Nobel Peace Prize winner, Dr. Norman E. Borlaug, of the International Maize and Wheat Improvement Centre, Mexico, visiting Pakistan in March 1971 in connection with his international work on agricultural development, also paid tribute to the Pakistani farmer, placing him in the front rank of the green revolutionaries engaged in the endeavour to revolutionize agriculture to feed the rapidly increasing populations of developing countries.

To increase agricultural production, the Government is relying mainly on improved irrigation and drainage, greater use of chemical fertilizers, soil reclamation, progressive use of improved seeds, plant protection, agricultural research and extension work—all of which is backed up by the provision of guaranteed minimum support prices for major foodgrains, subsidies and loans for fertilizer and farm implements, and other economic assistance and incentives to farmers. Statistics on some quantitative achievements in respect of the distribution of fertilizer and improved seeds and of plant protection are given in Table V (i)-(iii). It is with these measures that it became possible to increase the per acre yields of certain

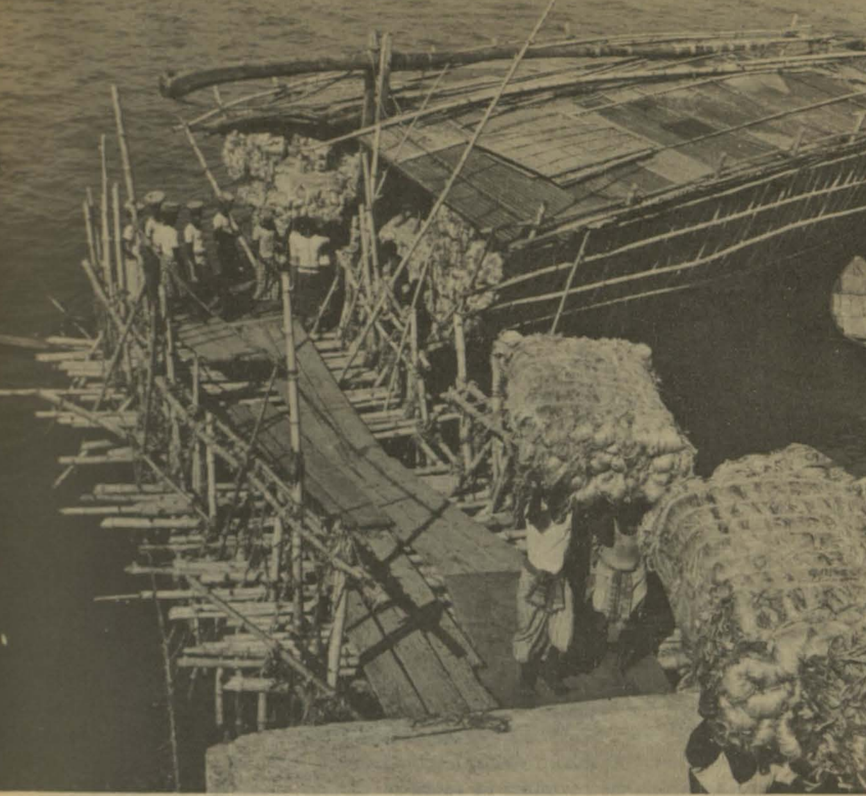
crops significantly in the last three years of the Third Plan, as shown in Table VIII. In 1967/68 about 2 million acres of irrigated land were put under Mexi-Pak wheat, and the production of wheat was raised by over 53 per cent from 4.3 million tons in 1966/67 to 6.6 million tons in 1969/70. Similarly, during the same period, the utilization of IRRI rice seeds helped to boost the production of rice by about 31 per cent from 10.8 million tons in 1966/67 to 14.1 million tons in 1969/70. The sowing of hybrid maize, carried out with the co-operation of the International Research Centre of the Ford and Rockfeller Foundations, raised the production of maize within one year by 200,000 tons from 581,000 tons in 1966/67 to 782,000 tons in 1967/68, although under less favourable weather conditions this output was reduced to 659,000 tons in 1969/70.

However, much remains to be done in these fields. Thus, for instance, as against a world average productivity of 1,030 pounds per acre for wheat and of 1,690 pounds per acre for rice, in Pakistan the current productivity for these crops amounts to about 954 pounds per acre (West Pakistan) and 1,028 pounds per acre (East Pakistan) respectively, whereas conservative estimates place *potential* productivity in Pakistan at 1,600/1,800 pounds for wheat and 2,000 pounds for rice.

Agricultural Education and Training: Recognizing the need for agricultural education and trained personnel to modernize agriculture and implement agricultural development programmes, educational and training facilities are being improved and expanded. The importance of this is further emphasized by the fact that, despite its agricultural progess, Pakistan's per-

Spraying a rice field at Cox's Bazar, East Pakistan.





Unloading jute at a jetty in Khulna.

acre yield of crops is among the lowest in the world. Education and training are basic steps in the removal of such primary causes of this situation as primitive methods and lack of skill, poor quality seed, inadequate use of fertilizers, and destruction caused by plant diseases and pests.

Enrolments at the two agricultural universities, established in 1961 at Mymensingh in the East and at Lyallpur in the West, have increased significantly, as have admissions at the three agricultural colleges at Tandojam and Peshawar in the West and Tejgaon in the East, where teaching facilities have been developed to meet growing requirements. Universities also provide short courses for external students and trainees and organize extension programmes. Thus, for instance, the Lyallpur Agricultural University, early in 1969, has launched a Farm Guide Movement which provides training in modern farming techniques, including livestock management, for farmers and others interested in agriculture and agricultural development. (Also see the chapter on Education).

In addition to these educational facilities, there are several other centres for agricultural training. Of these, Village AID Training Institutes have been handed over to the Provincial Agriculture Departments. At present, there are 12 agricultural extension training institutes—five in West Pakistan and seven in East Pakistan—which now provide two-year pre-service and in-service training courses for Union Agricultural Assistants and Field Staff. In East Pakistan, these institutes are situated at Daulatpur, Gouripur, Tejgaon, Natore, Gaibandha, Sherpur and Tajhat. A large number of farmers' sons and Union Agricultural Assistants of the East Pakistan Agriculture Department have been trained in the handling of power tillers, power pumps and plant protection equipment at the Farm Mechanization Training Institute, Tejgaon. In West Pakistan, the Agricultural institutes are in operation at Peshawar, Sargodha, Quetta, Sakrand and Rahim Yar Khan. The West Pakistan Agricultural Development Corporation is also conducting a training programme for farmers in the Guddu Barrage area. (Also see chapter on Education).

Research : This has been a matter of serious concern, and considerable improvement has been achieved. To meet specialized research needs and for concentration on important crops, three central research bodies exist, namely, the Agricultural Research Council, the Pakistan Central Cotton Committee, and the Pakistan Central Jute Committee. The Cotton and Jute Committees also carry out industrial research in relation to these commodities. At the Provincial level, there are four research institutes, each of which has a number of research stations under it. In addition, there are two agricultural atomic research stations, one in each wing of the country, mainly concerned with irradiation investigation for the development of disease resistant strains of plants and seeds, and the preservation of food-grains, fresh vegetables and fruits.

Since 1967/68, the main emphasis of agricultural research has been on the introduction and evolution of new varieties of crops for cultivation under different climatic and soil conditions, with the objective of increasing both farm production and income.

In West Pakistan, dwarf wheat varieties imported from Mexico have been tried on a large scale, increased from 60,000 acres under these varieties in 1966/67 to 6 million acres in 1968/69. The new varieties responded to large doses of fertilizer and controlled irrigation (providing 25 to 50 per cent more water than is needed for local varieties) with encouragingly high yields. Several varieties are now being selected for different types of soil and different seasons under irrigated and *borani* conditions. Mangla 68, Indus 66, Inia 66, Norteno 67 and Chenab 70 thus hold good promise for replacing Mexi-Pak 65 and other imported varieties at present extensively used. Two newly evolved dwarf varieties, Khushab 69 and Mexi-Pak 69, have been released for general cultivation in the Northern Zone. Some dwarf varieties have also been tried in East Pakistan; and two of these, Inia and Norteno, have given high yields.

A new fodder, Napier Grass X Bajra hybrid No. 13, yielding an average



Carding a fine crop of cotton.

of about 5.5 tons (1,500 maunds) of fodder per acre has been developed at the Ayub Agricultural Research Institute at Lyallpur. This has been approved for large-scale cultivation.

Experiments on soybean cultivation have been carried out successfully in the Hyderabad region. Steps are now being taken to popularize two varieties, K-30 and SBL, amongst farmers to help increase the production of oilseeds. Another step forward has been taken in the development of high-yielding hybrid and synthetic maize. Two varieties, J-I and S-200, have been successfully grown in spring. IRRI rice varieties, imported from the Philippines, were tried for the first time in West Pakistan during 1966/67 with encouraging results. Two varieties, IR-8, and IR-5, have been selected for large-scale cultivation; and two new varieties, IR-6 and Mehran 69, which are high-yielding with better grain quality, are being multiplied. In addition, a *basmati* hybrid, IR-424 has been evolved, which possesses the cooking qualities of *basmati* but gives a higher yield, and for the hill tracts, a new strain, JP-5, has been rebased. Two new cotton varieties, MS-39 and MS-40, with a staple length of 1¼", have given higher yields than the standard variety, AC-134.

In East Pakistan, research on selected varieties of IRRI rice is being conducted on a large scale, the best results being obtained with sowing in the *boro* season (Winter). A few promising varieties have already been selected for rapid multiplication. Under experimental conditions, these

have shown an average yield of 20 to 30 maunds per acre as against 10 to 12 maunds per acre yielded by local varieties. Experiments to select a suitable IRRI variety for sowing in the *aman* season (Summer) are in progress. Indeed, cultivation of IR-20, developed by the Intrenational Rice Research Institute of the Phillippines, has a already been introduced on an expanding scale through EPADC—increasing its coverage from 20,000 acres in 1969/70 to about 1.25 million acres in 1970/71. Two high-yielding varieties of sugarcane have been found suitable as replacements for existing cane varieties in East Pakistan. Six high-yielding varieties of jute, giving a 10 to 15 per cent higher yield than standard varieties, have been evolved, and further research on disease and pest resistant strains is being carried out under the Pakistan Central Jute Committee.

Extension Work : Extension services have been strengthened and improved steadily since 1959/60 to make them an effective agency, both to acquaint the farmer with improved agricultural methods and to convince him to use them. Currently, the extension service provides roughly one field assistant for each union of 10 villages, who has transport facilities to move between the villages and reach individual farmers. The stress is on practical demonstration of the effects of improved practices on model plots in each village union, backed up by audio-visual aids to explain the new methods and techniques.

In East Pakistan there are now four Assistant Directors at the Extension Service Headquarters to ensure proper co-ordination and efficient supervision of the extension work in the Province. Special emphasis is laid on the in-service training of staff, particularly at the thana and union levels. There are three in-service training centres where training is given to Thana Agricultural Officers and Union Agricultural Assistants.

In West Pakistan, extension work in the Ghulam Mohammad and Guddu Barrage areas has become the responsibility of the Agricultural Development Corporation. In addition, in place of the single directorate in 1959/60, three Regional Directorates have been set up to look after the extension needs of the rest of the region. Expansion of the extension staff at almost all levels includes divisional appointments of specialists dealing with horticulture, plant protection, and marketing.

The great need for the future, apart from further expansion and development of facilities, is the qualitative improvement of the extension service, in terms of more attractive service conditions, as well as better practical training and more experience, and improved co-ordination between teaching, training, research and extension.

Improved Seeds : As improved varieties of seeds can increase crop yields dramatically, considerable effort is being devoted to popularize the use of these varieties, many of which have been evolved through research within Pakistan. The production of nucleus seeds is primarily the responsibility of the Provincial Agricultural Development Corporations. Their multiplication in quantity is carried out at the Corporations' own farms and is aug-

mented further by registered cultivators for collection by the Corporations. Development of this process, which is also facilitated by seed testing laboratories and improvement of the distribution mechanism, have led to an increase in the distribution of improved seeds for major crops (not including cotton seeds) from 41,000 tons in 1964/65 to about 61,000 tons in 1969/70, i.e. by about 49 per cent in five years. In addition to covering about 40 per cent of land under wheat cultivation with Mexi-Pak varieties in 1968/69, in the same year the coverage of land under IRRI rice in both wings of the country increased to over 1 million acres, against about 75,000 acres in 1966/67. Even so, much still remains to be done to achieve the Third Plan target of introducing improved seed cultivation to 50 per cent of the area under major crops. For this, both seed production and distribution systems will have to be expanded and improved, particularly in East Pakistan.

Fertilizers: To help increase the use of chemical fertilizers, the Government is supplementing home production with large imports and arranging distribution at subsidized rates. Compared with 132,000 nutrient tons of fertilizer used in 1964/65, about 472,000 tons were utilized in 1969/70, showing an increase of about 258 per cent. However, this still falls considerably short of the Plan target of 720,000 tons in 1969/70. To make up for this, measures under way include improving the distribution system, engaging the co-operation of the private sector for this purpose, expansion of credit arrangements for the purchase of fertilizer through the Agricultural Development Bank and other institutional sources.

Plant Protection : In addition to preventive measures of treating seeds for resistance to various forms of diseases, other measures of plant protection involve aerial and ground spraying of pesticides. In East Pakistan, where more rapid advance has been made in this field during recent years, the total area covered increased from 4.8 million acres in 1964/65 to 9.5 million acres in 1968/69 (against a target of 9.6). In West Pakistan there has been no increase on the 3.4 million (against a target of 6) acres covered in 1965/66.

Agricultural Mechanization : This programme gives equal emphasis to the manufacture and distribution of more efficient agricultural implements in both zones of the country; but in the East there is a special emphasis on the development of power-pump irrigation. The use of bulldozers and tractors for land reclamation and cultivation is being developed steadily in both East and West Pakistan.

As against some 6,000 tractors in 1965/66, the country is now estimated to have some 20,000 to 30,000 tractors—which include fleets of Government-owned tractors hired out to individual farmers in both zones of the country. It is, however, also estimated that the minimum horse-power needed for reasonably adequate agricultural production is 0.2 HP per acre, in comparison with which the Pakistan average of 0.08 is thus less than half the barest minimum.

In West Pakistan, the Government established a Farm Mechaniza-

tion Committee in September 1968 under the Ministry of Agriculture and Works. The Committee has been made responsible for assessing the current position of agricultural practices and giving its advice on the mechanization of agriculture, together with the financial and training implications of the development it recommends. Three fact-finding panels of experts have been appointed by the Committee to deal with three different aspects of mechanization: socio-economic, manufacturing, and institutional provisions, including supply and servicing of machinery. A similar committee has now been set up in East Pakistan.

The West Pakistan Committee has recently submitted its report and has suggested a phased programme of mechanized farming for the Fourth, Fifth and Sixth Plan periods. The report contains about 100 recommendations relating to means of helping small farmers in mechanizing their farms; credit and foreign exchange requirements; strengthening extension services at the district level; research on various aspects of mechanization, and institutional arrangements for implementing policies.

On an average, Pakistan now imports 3,000 to 4,000 tractors a year, as against its annual requirements of 7,000 to 8,000 tractors. In order to explore ways of dealing with this situation and also of meeting the need for other mechanical machinery, negotiations have been held with a five-member ECAFE/UNIDO fact-finding Mission that visited Pakistan at the beginning of 1969. The object of the Mission was to gather information, consult industrialists and officials, and assess Pakistan's potential for the manufacture of agricultural machinery, including irrigation equipment, diesel engines, rice driers, threshing, harvesting and seeding equipment, as well as tractors and power tillers. For the moment, sanctions have been accorded to five concerns for the assembly and/or manufacture of tractors, harvesters, and other agricultural machinery. One concern has started production.

The scope of what can be achieved through mechanization is also indicated by what has actually been done in recent years through the assistance of the public sector in this field. In 1965/66 a fleet of 123 tractors hired out by the East Pakistan Agricultural Development Corporation reclaimed an area of about 19,000 acres of land in East Pakistan. Through better utilization of a fleet of 100 tractors, the Corporation in 1969/70 has aimed at reclaiming 20,000 acres. While about 4,000 power pumps were hired out in East Pakistan during 1966/67, in 1968/69, their number was increased to 10,852, and the goal for 1969/70 is 19,000 power pumps. As a result, the area irrigated by power pumps increased to about 425,000 acres in 1968/69 and is estimated at 750,000 acres in 1969/70. Four workshops providing repair facilities for pumps have been set up at Kuliarchar, Brahmanbaria, Sylhet and Naogaon to supplement the facilities available at the central workshop in Dacca.

In West Pakistan, bulldozers and tractors helped to develop 392,000 acres of new land for cultivation in 1968/69. Government-owned bulldozers and tractors used in 1968/69 numbered 945 and 85 respectively, and the estimates for 1969/70 are about 950 and 100 respectively. To cope with the expanded programme of mechanized farming, there are seven workshops and



Harvesting sugar cane in East Pakistan.

six sub-shops at Khuzder, Dadu, Multan, Lahore, Rawalpindi and Bannu. The agricultural engineering workshops of Lyallpur have also developed machinery suitable for local conditions, including paddle wheat threshers, maize shellers and seed drills.

Food-grain Storage : Both the Central and Provincial Governments operate food-grain storage programmes. Government storage space is required to keep sufficient food-grain reserves to tide the country over bad years, and also to store rice intended for exports. Farmers, processors and marketers also need storage space in order to sell agricultural produce when prices are favourable, and to reduce seasonal fluctuations in prices. An estimated total of about 1.05 million tons of storage capacity was completed during the Third Plan period, against a target of 595,000 tons. (For details see Table VII.)

Land Reforms : As a result of the introduction of land reforms, farmers have been freed from the yoke of big landlords and *jagirdars*. In West Pakistan, the maximum holding has been fixed at 500 acres of irrigated land or 1,000 acres of unirrigated land. To eliminate the division of holdings into uneconomic units, a minimum limit was also fixed. Consolidation of fragmented holdings was taken up vigorously to undo the harm of fragmentation. By the end of the Third Plan period, an area of about 5 million acres had been consolidated, increasing the average size of consolidated units from 2.86 acres to 5.5 acres. Many other reforms pertaining to land administration were also introduced, and are being implemented in all the Provinces.

When the maximum limit for land-holdings was fixed, the 'excess' land of the big landlords was taken over by the Government, and the owners were compensated. The lands thus resumed were sold to existing tenants and to landless peasants on an instalment basis. Out of an area of about 2.35 million acres resumed in West Pakistan, about one-third was given to tenants on easy payment by instalments. The compensation payable for the resumed area was assessed at Rs. 92.60 million, and bonds for about half this amount were redeemed through cash payments. In East Pakistan, payments to intermediary interests for resumption of land amounted to Rs. 250 million by the middle of 1970.

Apart from other objectives, one of the aims of the land reforms was to encourage owner-operated farming, with the idea that such a system would be most conducive to the advancement of production and productivity.

Financial Assistance for Farmers : The non-institutional sources of rural credit comprise traders, middlemen, friends, relatives and commercial banks. The commercial banks have played a significant role in providing credit for agriculture, although it is largely of an indirect character—to stockists, traders and exporters, as well as for fertilizers.

Realizing the importance of providing adequate rural credit for enhancing production, the Government took steps to augment the availability of institutional credit. The following are the main institutional sources of agricultural credit, from which credit increased from a total of Rs. 225.5 million in 1965/66 to an estimated total of Rs. 575 million in 1969/70 :

Taccavi Loans : These loans are administered directly by the Provincial Governments, with the head of the district administration authorizing and arranging the distribution of loans through the revenue or agricultural officer. Loans given in 1968/69 amounted to Rs. 24.09 million in East and Rs. 11.16 million in West Pakistan.

Co-operative Societies : These are part of the co-operative movement in Pakistan, and they advance loans to their members. Loans provided in 1968/69 amounted to Rs. 90.47 million in East and Rs. 200.72 million in West Pakistan.

ADBP : Established in 1961, through the merger of the Agricultural Development Finance Corporation (established in 1957) and the Agricultural Bank (established in 1952), by March 1970 the Agricultural Development Bank of Pakistan had 144 branches and pay offices all over the country, with 63 in East Pakistan and 81 in West Pakistan. Loans furnished in 1968/69 amounted to Rs. 75.8 million in East and 82.1 million in West Pakistan. (Also see chapter on Finance and Banking.)

FISHERIES: Pakistan possesses rich fishery resources. Both the Bay of Bengal and the Arabian Sea are considered good fishing areas by international



Mechanized fishing boats like these are gradually becoming more and more common in East Pakistan.

standards. Inland rivers, lakes and other water areas also offer good scope for development. The development of fisheries is important to Pakistan both for increasing the protein intake in the daily diet of the people and for earning foreign exchange through exports.

Towards the end of 1968, the Government constituted a Fish Board under the Ministry of Commerce, on the recommendations of the Export Promotion Bureau, based on a survey of the fish industry in East and West Pakistan. The Board promotes the export of fish and fish products, as well as fixing grading standards. Provincial Governments, as well as the Central Government, have their Directorates of Fisheries, with staff extending to the field level. Each directorate, within its respective area of operations, covers development work, extension activities, and also research and training.

The Third Plan had proposed measures to achieve rapid growth in fish production. According to one estimate, with a total growth of 25 per cent, from 361,000 metric tons to 451,000 metric tons in the years

between 1964 and 1969, this objective was only partially realized, because, while marine fish production increased by 53 per cent, inland fish production rose by only 9 per cent, which amounts to little more than half the rate of population growth. Regionally, a major success was achieved in expanding marine fish production in West Pakistan by about 72 per cent (against the Plan target of 54 per cent), from 88,000 to 151,000 metric tons, whereas inland fish production increased by only 22 per cent (against the Plan target of 63 per cent), from 23,000 to 28,000 metric tons. In East Pakistan, however, achievements in both fields of fishing lagged far behind objectives, involving a total fish production increase of 27 per cent, as this in fact amounted to only 9 per cent, from 250,000 to 272,000 metric tons—with a growth of 7 per cent (against the Plan target of 22 per cent) in inland fish production, from 204,000 to 219,000 metric tons, and 15 per cent (against the Plan target of 58 per cent) in marine fish production, from 46,000 to 53,000 metric tons. Revised estimates given by the Planning Commission (see Table VII)—which are subject to further upward review—introduce major changes in the picture for East Pakistan, about tripling the output figures of both 1964 and 1969, but showing an increase in output of only 1.1 per cent. This also means that, in an area where fish is a major protein item in the diet, per capita production per day has worsened from 45 grms in 1964 to less then 30 grms in 1969.

For East Pakistan, the Third Plan had made substantial provisions to set up 50 fish multiplication farms and 70 induced spawning centres, and to expand the mechanized fishing fleet. Progress achieved towards these goals has been very limited. Only 7 fish farms have been completed with work on 20 still in progress, and construction of another 9, for which land has been set aside, still to start. Out of the 70 spawning centres, 60 have been completed, while work on the other 10 has been started only in 1969/70. Finally, against the objective of 1,000 additional mechanized fishing vessels by the end of the Plan period, it proved possible to add only 470 such vessels.

In West Pakistan, major activities included salvaging large numbers of fry and firelings and stocking them in dams, reservoirs, lakes, and abandoned canals. However, progress in the development of fish production at such sites has been slowed down because of delays in the processing and implementation of various schemes. The development of fisheries was continued in the Special and Northern areas, the Ghulam Mohammad and the Guddu Barrage areas, and the Frontier regions; but the Warsak Dam could not be commercially exploited for lack of equipment and skills. The reclamation of derelict water areas started in 1968/69 has been taken up on a large scale in the course of 1969/70.

Fish export earnings rose to about Rs. 99.29 million in 1969/70, but this still leaves the country far from the Plan target of Rs. 250 million.

ANIMAL HUSBANDRY : Livestock and their products account for about 20 per cent of the entire annual value earned by agriculture. This sub-sector is also important from the standpoint of the quality of the Pakistani diet,



Animal husbandry at the Mymensingh Agricultural University.

of providing draft animals, and for the supply of wool, animal hair, hides, skins, and other raw materials for industries within the country and for export. Annual production of wool amounts to about 18,000 tons of which around half is exported, of animal hair to 4,000 tons, of hides and skins to 7 and 14 million pieces respectively, most of which is consumed by local tanning industries.

The Provinces have their own Directorates of Animal Husbandry, with staff extending to the field level, which look after the development of the country's animal wealth. Veterinary hospitals and dispensaries, including mobile dispensaries, are being operated for both preventive and curative measures. To upgrade livestock research and breeding, special farms supply pedigree animals of improved breeds.

In East Pakistan, 62 thana veterinary dispensaries were constructed between 1965/66 and 1968/69, while the construction of another 30 dispensaries was scheduled for completion by the end of 1970. About 355 thana livestock assitants were employed for control of contagious diseases, such as rinderpest and ranikhet, during the first four years of the Third Plan, and

steps were taken to deploy 240 new thana livestock assistants and 410 new vaccinators in the last year of the Plan. In addition to the nine artificial insemination centres set up in various districts of East Pakistan by the middle of 1968, three additional centres have since been established and the breeding and dairy farm at Sylhet has been expanded.

In West Pakistan, during the Third Plan period, 13 new veterinary hospitals and two dispensaries were constructed, in addition to setting up some 560 new veterinary aid centres at the Union level. During the first four years of the Plan, over 560 livestock assistants were employed, four livestock farms for specific breeding were improved, and two artificial insemination centres were also set up. Currently there are six Government Livestock Experiment Stations in West Pakistan, which carry out research on various breeds of cattle—including bulls, buffaloes, goats and sheep—in their home tracts. This research at present is concentrated on the production of proven sires for distribution to the artificial insemination centres and the breeding areas.

Recent studies conducted by the Department of Nutrition in the Faculty of Animal Husbandry, Lyallpur Agricultural University, reveal an exceptional capacity for digestion of roughage by buffaloes and conversion of urea into assimilable amino acid, making it possible to feed them on a comparatively inexpensive urea-rich fodder, one pound of which replaces 12 lbs. of cotton-seed cake, 6 lbs. of 'guava' or 18 lbs. of cereals.

The Department of Poultry Husbandry evolved a new breed of poultry called Lyallpur Silver Block, by cross-breeding the hardy, disease and heat tolerant indigenous fowl with the high-yielding imported breeds, so as to produce a general-purpose bird for the difficult conditions in villages. The new breed produce 150 eggs per year (almost double the number produced by local fowl), with a quicker and heavier weight gain and a capability to withstand high ambient temperatures.

FORESTRY: In East Pakistan, besides the Forest Department of the Provincial Government, the East Pakistan Forest Industries Development Corporation is responsible for the development of forestry in the region. From 1965/66 to 1968/69, about 36,000 acres were regenerated, 25,000 acres were afforested, and the target for 1969/70 was to regenerate 6,800 and afforest 3,400 acres. In the three years from 1965 to 1968, 1,350 acres of new rubber plantation were raised, to which another 3,000 acres were added in 1968/69, further rising to an estimated total of 10,100 acres in 1970, including the 3,000 acres planted during the Second Plan period.

In West Pakistan, about 2,000 acres were afforested during the three years from 1965 to 1968 and another 13,000 acres during 1968/69, with a further target for afforesting 11,600 acres in 1969/70.

New roads, wells and irrigation projects for the development of forests were developed apace in both wings of the country.

Review of Developments in Forestry: Productive forests cover about 5.6 million acres of West Pakistan and about 5.5 million acres of East Pakistan. In the East, the forests mainly occur in two big blocks: the tropical semi-



Students of the Pakistan Forest College collecting practical data.

evergreen forests of the Chittagong Hill Tracts, Chittagong and Cox's Bazar, and the tidal forests of the Sunderbans. The productive forests in the West comprise the coniferous forests of the high hills and the foothills, the riverain forests along the River Indus, and the man-made irrigated plantations of the Panjab and Sind.

Forestry in East Pakistan: At the time of Partition, the forests of East Pakistan had been very much neglected. Because the demand for its forest products was low and the means of transportation inadequate, it had proved difficult to convert existing derelict forests into well-stocked plantations. With the creation of Pakistan, the demand for forest products increased greatly. The completion of the Karnafuli Dam and the introduction of mechanical logging in the Chittagong Hill Tracts brought about a vast improvement in extraction facilities. This increased demand and improved means of extraction made it possible to accelerate the conversion of existing derelict

natural tree growths to plantations of high-value trees, such as teak and jarul. Whereas only about 16,000 acres of such plantations existed at Partition, the present area is 160,000 acres ; and these are being expanded at the rate of about 20,000 acres annually. Furthermore, the work on raising rubber plantations initially started by the Forest Department is now being conducted on a commercial scale by the Forest Industries Development Corporation.

Before Independence, working plans for forests in East Bengal were prepared according to data collected from sample strip enumerations. Because this method of inventory is extremely difficult to carry out in tidal and moist tropical forests, the data collected cannot be assumed to possess an acceptable accuracy. Since the past 20 years, working plans for all the major forests of the region—including the tidal forests of the Sunderbans and the tropical semi-evergreen forests of the Chittagong Hill Tracts—have been prepared with data collected through aerial surveys and inventories.

Though the demand for forest products increased greatly with the creation of Pakistan and the subsequent implementation of five-year development plans, there was no agency which could bridge the gap between the timber standing in forests and the consumer in cities. In the absence of a viable private enterprise, the East Pakistan Government in 1959 created a semi-autonomous Forest Industries Development Corporation. Its task is to foster extraction and conversion of timber from inaccessible forest areas; to encourage treatment and preservation of wood; to establish industries based on products from the forest—pulp and paper, veneer and plywood, tanning extracts, and other timber products. In addition, as already indicated, it also took over the task of planting rubber trees on a commercial scale. By now, all these ventures have been successfully launched. Another agency, the East Pakistan Industries Development Corporation, also concerns itself with the development of certain forest industries, particularly the manufacture of pulp and paper. Timber extracted has increased from about 24.25 million cubic feet in 1964/65 to an estimated 31.2 million cubic feet in 1969.70.

Forestry Research and Training : With the large-scale exploitation of the forests of East Pakistan arose the problem of what to do with the numerous species which were not marketable because they had never before been put to commercial use. In pre-partition India, facilities for conducting research in forest products had been available only at Dehra Dun. Though a nucleus for such work was being established at Peshawar in West Pakistan, it was felt that separate research facilities were necessary to meet the pressing and distinct needs of East Pakistan. Consequently, work was commenced on the construction of the Forest Products Research Laboratory at Chittagong, during 1954, with the assistance of the United States International Co-operation Agency (ICA). Its task is to carry out research on wood seasoning and preservation; on the manufacture of veneer, plywood and building board, of pulp and paper; and on the use of modern machinery in wood-working. With the assistance of UNDP, the Laboratory is now being developed into a full-fledged forest research institute, to conduct investigations in the fields

of both forestry and forest products.

As conditions vary so widely in the two wings of the country, it was also considered desirable to make separate arrangements for training forest Rangers in East Pakistan, so that here students should be able to devote their entire attention to the type of work which they would be required to do within the region. The Chittagong Forest Rangers College was thus founded in 1964 and soon began functioning. Prior to this, Forest Rangers for the Eastern Wing were trained at the Pakistan Forest College, Peshawar.

East Pakistan Private Forests Ordinance: The East Pakistan Private Forests Ordinance was enacted in 1959. Under its provisions, 332 square miles of private forests have been acquired, and the management of 132 additional square miles have been taken over by the Forest Department as 'vested forests'. This accounts for almost the entire forest area which had been privately owned.

Forestry in West Pakistan : At the time of the emergence of Pakistan, the main forestry problem in the Western Wing was the grossly inadequate area of forests under proper management. In addition, the rapid deterioration occurring in the non-arable land all over the region was also a cause of concern to the forester.

In view of the sparsity of forested areas in the region, irrigated plantations of timber trees were first started in the Panjab in 1866. Since the construction of the Lloyds and Ghulam Mohammad Barrages, the work has been spread to Sind. A notable achievement in this field has been the raising of compact irrigated plantations and protective tree strips along the roads and canal banks of the Thal. This work has been accomplished so successfully that vast improvements have been brought about in the living conditions of an area which 20 years ago was mostly treeless desert. The quantity of timber extracted has increased from about 13.2 million cubic feet in 1965 to an estimated 15 million cubic feet in 1970.

The problem of soil erosion in the foothills had also been engaging the attention of the Forest Department even before Independence, and a Soil Conservation Circle was organized in the Panjab Forest Department in 1939 to reclaim eroded lands. In 1954 the scope of these pioneering efforts was greatly expanded with the launching of the Erosion Control and Soil Conservation Project in Rawalpindi, with the assistance of the United States Government. The objectives of the Project were to conduct land use and land capability surveys, and to test, evaluate and demonstrate various engineering, agronomic and forestry practices which seemed practicable under local conditions and which could serve to conserve soil and increase crop production. Heavy emphasis was laid on using the extension approach for popularizing the more promising practices. This work has since been expanded to cover almost the entire upland area of West Pakistan. With the passage of time, the emphasis has shifted more and more towards improving agronomical practices to increase crop yields, and therefore, the work is now being carried out by a Directorate of Soil Conservation under

the Agriculture Department.

The forester in West Pakistan found large areas in his charge which were not wooded—the entire Province of Baluchistan, with a full-fledged forest circle, did not have any productive forests because of its arid climate. The first approach to this problem was through dry zone afforestation. A great variety of water-catching devices were tested in the plains of the Panjab, the dry hills of Baluchistan, and in the rocky North-West Frontier Province. A number of exotic species (mainly of the genera, *Eucalyptus* and *Prosopis*) were also tried. Nowhere did the method prove economical for large-scale afforestation; and opinion then gradually started veering away from tree-planting towards developing the arid lands for grazing instead of for wood production. In 1954 a Range Management Project was started in Baluchistan, again with the assistance of the United States. This work has now been extended to the arid tracts of the Panjab and Sind as well. The Forest Departments in the Western Wing have now been charged with administering about 12 million acres of rangelands. Though demonstration projects have been started in several places, the basic problem of managing these areas still remains to be solved: how to reduce grazing intensity in order to allow range vegetation to recover.

When forest reserves were being created in pre-Partition India towards the close of the nineteenth century, large forested areas in the hills of the North-West Frontier Province and the Panjab were left in the ownership of village communities, to be used by them as they deemed fit. As the condition of these forests deteriorated progressively, the Frontier Government decided to transfer their management to the Forest Department in 1950. Though the transfer has halted the indiscriminate destruction of these forests, which cover about 1,800 square miles, introducing adequate regeneration in most of these areas is still a problem.

Although the forester generally gives the highest priority to the water-regulation functions of only the forests under his charge, the forester of Pakistan claims that in the national interest he must be concerned with the entire land use pattern in all the hilly areas, instead of merely within the area under Reserved Forests. Watershed management has assumed particular urgency in the Western Wing since the signing of the Indus Waters Treaty in 1960, which allows for the withdrawal of 33 million cubic feet of water by India from the rivers Ravi, Beas and Sutlej. To make up for this loss, Pakistan has started work on linking the waters of the rivers still remaining with it through the construction of two large dams, four barrages and several link canals. Besides the large capital investment in these structures, there also is the crucial problem of the paucity of alternative dam sites, once existing reservoirs are silted up. It is thus of extreme importance to prolong the useful life of these reservoirs.

The problem of proper land use in the hills in the interest of watershed management was stressed by Pakistan's foresters as early as 1951. An aerial land-use survey of the northern hilly watersheds of the Indus and its tributaries in West Pakistan was carried out by the Forest Department during 1960-62. In 1963/64 the Bhurban Pilot Project over an area of about 20

square miles was started near Murree to demonstrate correct land-use practices to farmers in the hills. This work has now been expanded to five project areas in the hills of the Panjab and the North-West Frontier Province. The Frontier Government is considering a scheme for expanding this work to 30,000 acres, with the assistance of FAO. The Water and Power Development Authority of West Pakistan is also engaged in promoting watershed management in the catchments of the Mangla and Tarbela dams, and employs foresters, engineers, and agronomists for this work. Research on watershed management is entrusted to the Pakistan Forest Institute, which works in collaboration with WAPDA on their project areas. As a culmination of this effort, the Pakistan Forest Institute at Peshawar sponsored the First West Pakistan Watershed Management Conference in 1968, in which workers from all disciplines bearing on watershed management participated: foresters, engineers and agronomists. The Conference was presided over by the President of Pakistan.

Development of Training and Research: In the partition of the Subcontinent, Pakistan lost access to the world-famous centre of forestry education, training and research at Dehra Dun. The Pakistan Forest College was therefore organized in 1947 by a few members of the Indian Forest Service and some workers of the Forest Research Institute, Dehra Dun, who had opted to serve in Pakistan. In 1948 a research nucleus was added. From this small beginning has developed the Pakistan Forest Institute, which is located adjoining the Peshawar University Campus. Since its inception, the Institute has trained 192 Forest Officers and 511 Forest Rangers, who are employed all over Pakistan. Except for about a dozen senior forest officers trained at Dehra Dun and in the United Kingdom, the officer cadres of the Forest Departments of Pakistan are now entirely manned by the alumni of the Pakistan Forest College. The Institute conducts research in silviculture and its management, mensuration, forest products, forest genetics, forest economics, range management, watershed management, forest botany, soil and wood chemistry, forest entomology and medicinal plants.

It is now planned to add a branch for research work on wildlife management. Considerable impetus was given to the research division of the Institute by the UNDP (Special Fund) Project, which provided equipment, expert services and Fellowships for advanced studies abroad during the period of 1964 to 1969. The Institute is now reasonably well established, and is equipped to impart education and conduct research in forestry, forest products and ancillary fields. There is still considerable scope, however, for improving the quality of the research and teaching personnel through advanced studies.

Management of Forests in Dir, Swat and Chitral: Perhaps the event with the greatest potential impact on forestry in the Western Wing was the merger of the former princely states of Dir, Swat and Chitral with the North-West Frontier Province. About 1,700 square miles in this area is under temperate coniferous forests. Part of the area has been surveyed by aerial inventory.



Gewa forest of the Sunderbans. The wood of this tree is used for the manufacture of newsprint.

Though the crucially important work of settlement of rights and demarcation of Government-owned forests has not yet been started, it is anticipated that the proper management of these forests will considerably mitigate the timber shortage in West Pakistan.

Wildlife Management: The wildlife population of Pakistan has been on the decline, due mainly to indiscriminate hunting and the increase in human population resulting in the destruction of wildlife habitats. The East Pakistan Forest Department has therefore established several game sanctuaries and national parks to protect wildlife. In West Pakistan, the Game Department was merged with the Forest Department in 1968, and the latter was made responsible for the application of the rules in force for the control of hunting and shooting on all land.

On the request of the Government of Pakistan, two teams of the World Wildlife Fund visited both wings of Pakistan in 1966 and 1967, and a Wildlife Enquiry Committee was constituted on its recommendations. The Committee is now preparing its report on steps to be taken towards the conservation and development of wildlife in Pakistan.

AGRICULTURAL MARKETING : To promote rational marketing of agricultural products, there is, under the Central Ministry of Agriculture, a

Directorate of Marketing and Grading. The functions of this Directorate include market surveys, grading of agricultural products, and dissemination of statistics pertaining to prices, acreage and production. It works in collaboration with the Ministry's Planning Unit (established in 1968), which apart from planning, is also concerned with research in farm management and agricultural economics and with collecting agricultural statistics. The Provincial Governments also have their own Marketing Directorates, which carry out surveys, gather and publish price statistics, and enforce marketing laws, rules and regulations.

The Directorate of Agricultural Marketing has maintained compulsory grading of wool since 1954, of animal hair since 1962, *sarin* hemp since 1964, corriander since 1965, raw hides and skins since 1968, and potatoes since 1969. The Directorate has now prepared grade specifications for citrus fruits, eggs, oilcakes, crushed bones and animal proteins; and compulsory grading of these and other commodities is now in process. Finally, a Cotton Control Act has been promulgated in West Pakistan to improve the growing, ginning and pressing of cotton, which is essential for the promotion of marketing and export prospects of cotton.

TABLE I

Land Utilization by Regions (1967/68)

	East Pakistan	West Pakistan	Total
	(million acres)		
Total area	35.3	198.7	234.0
Net sown area	21.8	35.8	57.6
Current fallow	0.7	11.8	12.5
Total cultivated area	22.5	47.6	70.1
Forest area	5.5	5.6	11.1
Area not available for cultivation	6.2	46.8	53.0
Other cultivable land (excluding current fallow)	1.1	31.4	32.5
Area not reported	nil	67.3	67.3

Source: Planning Unit, Ministry of Agriculture and Works.

TABLE II

Quantum Index of Major Agricultural Crops

(*Base* : 1959/60 = 100)

Crops	54/55	55/56	56/57	57/58	58/59	59/60	60/61	61/62	62/63	63/64	64/65	65/66	66/67	67/68	68/69	69/70
All crops	**90**	**86**	**96**	**93**	**93**	**100**	**105**	**112**	**111**	**120**	**123**	**124**	**123**	**142**	**146**	**156**
Food crops	**88**	**81**	**96**	**90**	**88**	**100**	**107**	**109**	**105**	**118**	**121**	**117**	**112**	**137**	**142**	**153**
Rice	98	76	95	89	83	100	111	112	104	123	123	123	114	132	139	148
Wheat	82	86	93	91	100	100	98	103	107	107	117	100	112	164	170	187
Barley	82	96	87	113	115	100	91	89	96	82	86	63	68	82	76	82
Jowar	96	109	111	80	93	100	95	107	108	102	126	118	119	124	113	123
Bajra	108	105	112	85	95	100	93	112	128	110	135	112	113	126	100	103
Maize	89	94	97	92	100	100	91	101	100	109	109	111	121	163	129	150
Gram	105	117	114	110	97	100	101	104	112	101	111	92	91	83	92	104
Fibre crops	**90**	**110**	**102**	**108**	**103**	**100**	**91**	**119**	**119**	**124**	**112**	**128**	**134**	**146**	**141**	**153**
Cotton	99	102	104	104	97	100	103	111	125	143	129	142	158	177	170	183
Jute	84	117	99	112	108	100	80	125	113	106	96	121	115	121	104	126
Other crops	**100**	**91**	**94**	**98**	**111**	**100**	**100**	**119**	**137**	**128**	**143**	**166**	**175**	**164**	**168**	**177**
Sugarcane	88	85	90	106	114	100	109	131	162	151	174	209	210	184	205	216
Rape and Mustard	105	102	99	93	117	100	97	96	112	93	95	86	95	93	103	107
Sesamum	106	109	97	79	100	100	91	109	100	97	91	91	100	115	115	44
Tea	96	92	96	80	96	100	74	103	91	96	111	105	111	113	110	118
Tobacco	100	100	97	102	112	100	96	113	111	115	122	153	198	188	185	186

Sources : Planning Unit, Ministry of Agriculture and Works for figures up to 1968/69, and CSO for 1969/70.

(*Note* : A comparison with the corresponding Table in the *1971 Year-Book* will show a number of modifications in figures for specific crops. These differences are the result of revision by the Ministry of Agriculture, the previous figures having been taken from the CSO *Monthly Statistical Bulletin*, September, 1969).

TABLE

Acreage of

Year beginning July 1

Crop	Average 1960/61 to 1964/65			1965/66			1966/67		
	Pakistan	East	West	Pakistan	East	West	Pakistan	East	West
Rice	24,955	21,880	3,075	26,573	23,130	3,443	25,897	22,414	3,483
Wheat	12,464	148	12,316	12,874	136	12,738	13,385	180	13,205
Bajra	2,017	—	2,017	2,075	*d*	2,075	2,069	*d*	2,069
Jowar	1,251	2	1,249	1,469	2	1,467	1,382	2	1,380
Maize	1,202	17	1,185	1,349	10	1,339	1,377	9	1,368
Barley	529	69	460	436	54	382	456	56	400
Food-grains	42,418	22,116	20,302	44,776	23,332	21,444	44,566	22,661	21,905
Gram	3,028	137	2,891	2,778	135	2,643	3,220	146	3,074
Total food-grains	45,446	22,253	23,193	47,554	23,467	24,087	47,786	22,807	24,979
Sugarcane	1,476	318	1,158	1,855	379	1,476	2,018	413	1,605
Rape and mustard	1,727	537	1,190	1,565	474	1,091	1,623	487	1,136
Sesamum	214	132	82	194	124	70	199	124	75
Jute	1,732	1,732	—	2,198	2,198	—	2,165	2,165	—
Cotton	3,499	40	3,459	3,895	37	3,858	4,039	36	4,003
Tea	84	84	—	95	95	—	98	98	—
Tobacco	214	103	111	253	109	144	290	113	177
Total cash crops	8,946	2,946	6,000	10,055	3,416	6,639	10,432	3,436	6,996
TOTAL PRINCIPAL CROPS	54,392	25,199	29,193	57,609	26,883	30,726	58,218	26,243	31,975

a First estimate.
b Second estimate.
c Third estimate.
d Below 500 acres.

III

Principal Crops

(Thousand acres)

1967/68			1968/69			1969/70		
Pakistan	East	West	Pakistan	East	West	Pakistan	East	West
27,945	24,437	3,508	27,915*	24,073*	3,842	29,498*	25,490*	4,008
14,977	192	15,511	14,938	290	15,221	15,368*a*	279	15,089
2,258	*d*	2,258	1,819	*d*	1,819	1,560*c*	—	1,560
1,446	2	1,444	1,172	2	1,170	1,214	2	.,212
1,511	9	1,502	1,531	8	1,523	1,610	8	1,602
490	61	429	455	70	385	505*a*	70*a*	435*a*
48,627	701	23,926	48,403	24,443	23,960	49,755	25,849	23,906
2,921	152	2,769	2,538	169	2,369	2,302*a*	167*a*	2,135*a*
51,548	24,853	26,695	50,941	24,164	26,329	52,057	26,016	26,041
1,657	412	1,245	1,743	407	1,336	1,931	399	1,532
1,870	530	1,340	1,588	552	1,036	1,633*a*	508*a*	1,125*a*
208	129	79	199	131	68	176	125	51
2,354	2,354	—	2,217†	2,217†	—	2,413*b*	2,413*b*	—
4,447	36	4,411	4,342	34	4,308	4,343*c*	34*c*	4,309*c*
101	101	—	105	105	—	110*a*	110*a*	—
286	112	174	276	113	163	262*a*	107*a*	155*a*
10,923	3,673	7,249	10,417	3,512	6,905	10,868	3,696	7,172
62,471	28,527	33,944	61,358	28,124	33,234	62,925	29,712	33,213

*Includes Boro rice crop.
†Includes Mesta.

Sources : Planning Unit, Ministry of Agriculture and Works, and CSO *Monthly Statistical Bulletin*, October 1970.

TABLE

Year beginning July 1 **Production of**

	Average 1960/61 to 1964/65			1965/66			1966/67		
	Pakistan	East	West	Pakistan	East	West	Pakistan	East	West
Rice	10,842	9,701	1,141	11,631	10,335	1,296	10,767	9,424	1,343
Wheat	4,124	37	4,087	3,889	35	3,854	4,324	58	4,266
Bajra	375	*f*	375	364	*f*	364	365	—	365
Jowar	247	1	246	270	*f*	270	273	—	273
Maize	491	5	486	534	3	531	581	3	578
Barley	132	16	116	94	12	82	102	15	87
Total food-grains	16,211	9,760	6,451	16,782	10,385	6,397	16,412	9,500	6,912
Gram	664	35	629	574	43	531	673	48	625
Total food-crops	16,875	9,795	7,080	17,356	10,428	6,928	17,085	9,548	7,537
Sugarcane	20,542	4,943	15,599	29,507	7,550	21,957	29,705	8,070	21,635
Rape and mustard	314	97	217	274	95	179	302	102	200
Sesamum	33	25	8	31	24	7	34	27	7
Jute	1,075	1,075	—	1,195	1,195	—	1,143	1,143	—
	(6,019)	(6,012)	—	(6,693)	(6,693)	—	(6,400)	(6,400)	—
Cotton	355	3	352	411	3	407.9	458.5	2.6	455.9
	(2,027)	(17)	(2,011)	(2,347)	(16)	(2,331)	(2,620)	(15)	(2,605)
Tea	24	24	—	27	27	—	28	28	—
	(54.2)	(54.2)	—	(60.0)	(60.0)	—	(63.0)	(63.0)	—
Tobacco	99	28	71	135	27	108	175	37.5	137.5
	(221.1)	(62.7)	(158.4)	(302.8)	(60.2)	(242.6)	(392)	(84)	(308)
Total cash crop	22,442	6,194	16,247	31,580	8,921	22,658.9	31,845	9,410.1	22,435.4
TOTAL PRINCIPAL CROPS	39,316	15,989	23,327	48,936	19,349	29,586.9	48,930.5	18,958.1	29,972.4

Note : Figures in brackets indicate '000' bales for jute and cotton and million pounds for tea and tobacco.

a Last two years' average.
b Second estimate.
c Third estimate.
d Includes Mesta.
e Rough estimate.
f Below 500 tons.
* Includes Boro rice crop.

IV

Principal Crops

(Thousand tons)

1967/68			1968/69			1969/70		
Pakistan	East	West	Pakistan	East	West	Pakistan	East	West
12,470	10,995	1,475	13,165*	11,165*	2,000	14,098*	11,726*	2,392
6,375	58	6,317	6,605	92	6,513	6,636*e*	88*e*	6,548*e*
407	*f*	407	325	—	325	297	*f*	297
286	*f*	286	258	—	258	279	*f*	279
782	3	779	619	3	616	659	3	656
122	16	106	113	18	95	125 *e*	18 *e*	107*e*
20,442	11,072	9,370	21,085	11,278	9,807	22,094	11,835	10,259
520	47	473	574	54	520	528	54	474
20,962	11,119	9,843	21,619	11,332	10,327	22,622	11,889	10,733
25,954	7,589	18,365	28,921	7,297	21,624	33,370	7,418	25,952
390	120	270	347	128	219	358 *c*	118	240
39	30	9	39	31	8	36	30	6
1,223 (6,722)	1,223 (6,722)	— —	1,050 *d* (5,881)	1,050 *d* (5,881)	— —	1,255 *b* (7,028)	1,255 *b* (7,028)	— —
494 (2,926)	3 (15)	491 (2,911)	520 (2,974)	2 (13)	518 (2,961)	531 *c* (3,029)	2 *c* (14)	529 *c* (3,015)
29 (64.5)	29 (64.5)	— —	28 (62.9)	28 (62.9)	— —	30 (67)	30 (67)	— —
166.5 (372.5)	38.5 (86.2)	128 (286.3)	163 (366)	40 (89.6)	123 (276.4)	164 *a* (368.7)	39 *a* (87.8)	125 *a* (280.9)
28,295.5	9,032.5	19,263	31,068	8,576	22,492	35,744	8,892	26,852
49,257.5	20,151.5	29,106	52,727	19,908	32,819	58,366	20,781	37,585

Sources: Planning Unit, Ministry of Agriculture and Works and CSO *Monthly Statistical Bulletin*, October, 1970.

TABLE V

Progress of Fertilizer and Seed Distribution and Plant Protection

(i) Fertilizer Distribution

Year	Quantity distributed			Increase or decrease over 1964/65
	East Pakistan	West Pakistan	Total	
	(Thousand nutrient tons)			%
1964/65	45	87	132	
1965/66	54	71	125	(—)5
1966/67	76	116	192	(+)45
1967/68	96	189	285	(+)116
1968/69	108	227	335	(+)154
1969/70 (estimate)	135	337	472	(+)266

(ii) Improved Seed Distribution

Year	East Pakistan	West Pakistan	Total
	(Thousand tons)		
1964/65	9	32	41
1965/66	9	55	64
1966/67	4	19	23
1967/68	4*	79	83
1968/69	3†	47	50
1969/70 (estimate)	4	57	61

(iii) Plant Protection

	1964/65	1965/66	1966/67	1967/68	1968/69
	(Million acres)				
Aerial operations					
East Pakistan	0.6	0.5	0.5	1.0	1.9
West Pakistan	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.6	1.6
Total	1.0	0.9	1.1	1.6	3.5
Ground operations					
East Pakistan	4.2	4.9	6.9	7.2	7.6
West Pakistan	3.0	2.3	1.9	1.0	1.8
Total	7.2	7.2	8.8	8.2	9.4

* Excluding Cotton seed.

† Excluding Potato seed.

Source : Planning Unit, Ministry of Agriculture and Works (Figures given by the Planning Commission for preventive and curative plant protection vary somewhat from those in Table (*iii*), giving a 1968/69 total coverage of 7.41 million acres in East and 4.43 million acres in West Pakistan).

TABLE VI

Grain Storage Capacity and Targets

Executing Agency	Total require-ment	Availability at end of Second Plan	Estimated capacity on June 30, 1970	Third Plan target for additional capacity	Likely achieve-ment
			(Thousand tons)		
East Pakistan	750	612	816	250*a*	204*b*
West Pakistan	644	523	1,091*c*	125	568*c*
Centre	653	436	718	220	282*d*
Total	2,047	1,571	2,625	595	1,054

a The original target comprised godowns, but was revised to include four silos with a total capacity of 233,000 tons.

b Includes silo capacity of 150,000 tons and godown capacity of 54,000 tons.

c Includes target of 300,000-ton capacity for construction under the Rural Works Programme.

d Includes 200,000-ton capacity for rice storage at Landhi and Pipri under non-plan projects.

TABLE VII
Fish Production

Province	Fish production during 1964 *a*	1964 *b*	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969 *a*	1969 *b*	Increase from 1964 to 1969 per cent *a*	*b*
	(Thousand metric tons)									
East Pakistan	**250**	**818**	**259**	**259**	**265**	**265**	**272**	**828**	**9**	**1.1**
Inland	204	735	214	214	219	219	219	741	7	0.8
Marine	46	83	45	45	46	46	53	89	15	1.0
West Pakistan	**111**	**113**	**121**	**154**	**152**	**158**	**179**	**178**	**61**	**57·5**
Inland	23	21	23	23	23	28	28	28	22	33.3
Marine	88	92	98	131	129	130	151	150	72	63.0
All Pakistan	**361**	**931**	**379**	**413**	**417**	**423**	**451**	**1006**	**25**	**8.1**
Inland	227	756	236	237	242	247	247	769	9	1.8
Marine	134	175	143	176	175	176	204	237	53	35.4

Source: Planning Unit, Ministry of Agriculture and Works.

(*b*) Revised estimates of Planning Commission in the *Fourth Five-Year Plan, 1970-75*.



Tractor tilling land at an Agricultural Development Corporation farm near Dacca.

TABLE VIII

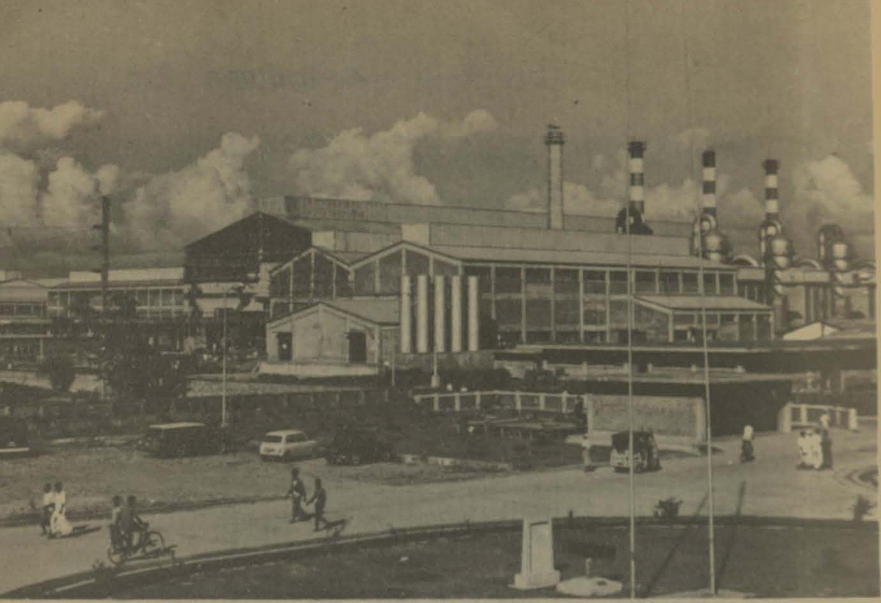
Yield Per Acre of Principal Crops

(Maunds)

Crop	Average 1960/61 to 1964/65			1965/66			1966/67			1967/68			1968/69			1969/70		
	Pak.	East	West	Pak.	East	West	Pak.	East	West	Pak.	East	West	Pak.	East	West	Pak.	East	West
Rice	11.8	12.1	10.1	11.9	12.2	10.2	11.3	11.5	10.5	12.1	12.2	11.4	12.8	12.6	14.2	13.0	12.5	14.1
Wheat	8.9	6.8	9.0	8.2	7.0	8.2	8.8	8.8	8.8	11.6	8.2	11.6	11.6	8.6	11.6	11.5	8.6	11.6
Bajra	5.0	—	5.0	4.8	—	4.8	4.8	—	4.8	4.9	—	4.9	4.9	—	4.9	5.2	—	5.2
Jowar	5.4	—	5.4	5.0	—	5.0	5.4	—	5.4	5.4	—	5.4	6.0	—	6.0	6.3	—	6.3
Maize	11.1	8.4	11.1	10.8	8.2	10.8	11.5	9.1	11.5	14.1	9.1	14.1	11.0	10.2	11.0	11.1	10.2	11.1
Barley	6.8	6.4	6.8	5.9	6.0	5.8	6.1	7.3	5.9	6.8	7.1	6.7	6.8	7.0	6.7	6.7	7.0	6.7
Gram	6.0	7.0	5.9	5.6	8.7	5.5	5.7	9.1	5.5	4.8	8.4	4.7	6.2	8.7	6.0	6.2	8.7	6.0
Sugarcane	376.6	421.1	364.1	433.0	542.0	404.9	400.7	531.9	366.9	426.4	501.4	401.5	453.2	488.0	442.6	453.2	491.3	444.2
Rape and mustard	4.9	4.5	4.9	4.8	5.5	4.5	5.1	5.7	4.8	5.7	6.2	5.5	5.9	6.3	5.8	6.0	6.3	5.8
Sesamum	4.7	5.0	2.9	4.3	5.3	2.2	4.7	5.9	2.5	5.1	6.3	3.1	5.3	6.4	3.2	5.3	6.4	3.2
Jute	16.8	16.8	—	14.8	14.8	—	14.4	14.4	—	13.8	13.8	—	12.9	12.9	—	14.2	14.2	—
Cotton	2.7	2.0	2.7	2.9	2.1	2.9	3.1	2.0	3.1	3.1	2.0	3.1	3.3	1.8	3.3	3.3	1.6	3.3
Tea	7.8	7.8	—	7.7	7.7	—	7.8	7.8	—	7.8	7.8	—	7.4	7.4	—	7.4	7.4	—
Tobacco	12.5	7.3	19.1	11.6	6.7	20.4	16.4	9.0	21.1	15.8	9.4	20.0	16.1	9.6	20.5	16.0	9.5	20.2

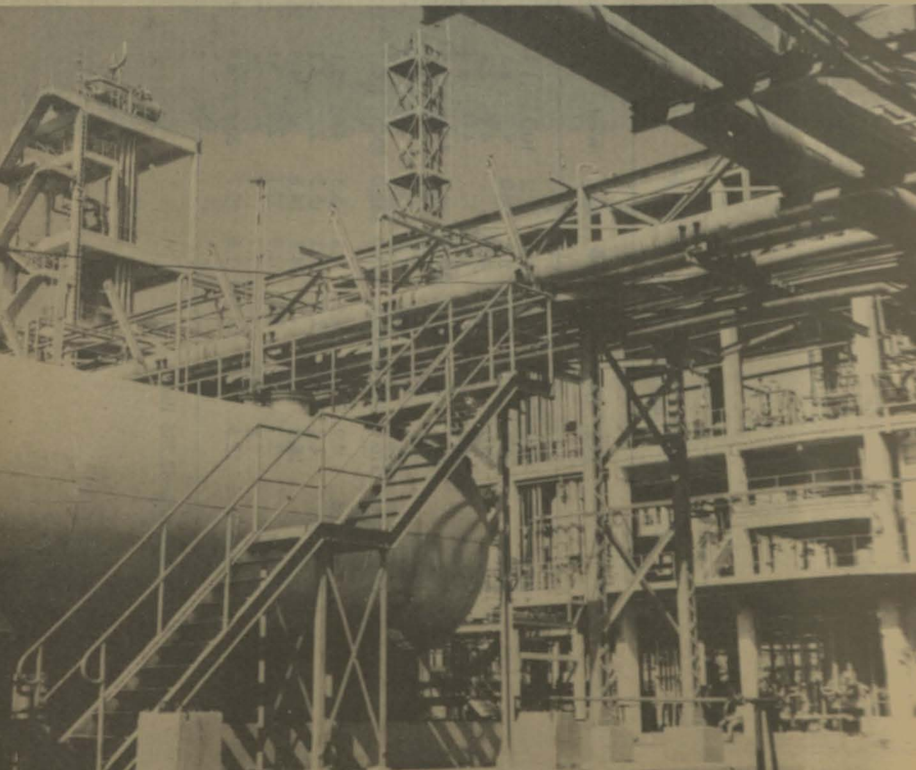
Maund=82.286 lbs.

Source : Planning Unit, Ministry of Agriculture and Works.



The Chittagong Steel Mill.

Heavy chemical complex at Kala Shah Kaku, West Pakistan.



Industry

Despite some setbacks which have prevented the full achievement of planned objectives, industrial development in the past five years of the Third Plan still realized an increase of over 38.5 per cent in its contribution to GNP from Rs. 4,711 million (11.5 per cent of GNP) in 1964/65 to Rs. 6,530 million (12 per cent of GNP) in 1969/70. This achievement must be seen in relation to an investment shortfall of about 34 per cent in the public sector and 24 to 32 per cent in the private sector (depending on whether the original private investment allocation of Rs. 8,300 million is taken or the revised one of Rs. 9,287 million).

Moreover, industry is well on its way to becoming a more substantial sector in the nation's economic life. It is also bringing about changes in other sectors of the economy—particularly agriculture, transportation, storage, communications, wholesale and retail trade—by providing capital as well as more and more consumer goods, and is thus stimulating the acceleration of their growth. Another indicator of industry's rising new role is that even with its greatly increased production, agriculture now contributes only 45.3 per cent of GNP as against 60 per cent in 1949/50.

The trend towards diversification is further reflected in the pattern of exports and imports. The share of primary commodities in total exports, which was 95 per cent in 1950/51, declined to about 69 per cent in 1964/65 and then to 45.2 per cent in 1969/70, the rest being accounted for by manufactures and semi-manufactures. On the import side, the trend has been towards larger imports of capital goods and raw materials for industry and a sharp decline in the proportion of consumer goods imported.

Industrial Growth : At the time of Independence, there were only 34 factories in Pakistan with a total daily employment of 26,400 persons. Although Pakistan inherited 20 per cent of the Subcontinent's population, her share in industry was less than 7 per cent, and even this consisted of small-scale and

minor industrial units.

In 1949/50, two years after Independence and initial efforts at industrialization, the manufacturing sector's contribution to GNP was only 5.9 per cent, and that also mainly from small industries. Large-scale industry was so limited that its GNP contribution amounted to just 1.4 per cent. West Pakistan, which was producing 1.5 million bales of cotton in 1950/51, had only three textile mills, while East Pakistan, producing 75 per cent of the total world output of jute, had virtually no jute manufacturing capacity.

The Korean boom of 1950 initiated a spurt of industrial activity in Pakistan, particularly in the West. The sharp increase in export earnings led to a liberal policy for the import of capital goods during 1950 and 1951. From 1952 onwards, as the effects of the Korean boom started tapering off, export earnings declined; and it became necessary to restrict imports, especially of consumer goods, through an elaborate system of import licensing. Restricted imports, coupled with high tariffs, made several consumer industries very attractive, and investment in these industries expanded rapidly. Gradually, however, as the demand for intermediate and capital goods started increasing—due to the sharp rise in investment activity—interest in engineering and electrical industries, and those producing such inputs as cement and fertilizers, gathered momentum. Since 1960, the growth of intermediate and investment-goods production has been faster than that in consumer-goods production, and most of the output derives from large-scale manufacturing.

Leading the field in the race for economic development, the manufacturing industry's share in GNP has incresed from 5.9 per cent in 1949/50 to 12 per cent in 1969/70, as against the Third Plan objective of 13.6 per cent. The quantum of industrial production in the manufacturing sector has risen threefold between 1959/60 and 1969/70 from an index of 100 to 303.8.

However, the development of the manufacturing industry during the Third Plan period did not come up to expectations, as in addition to the initial setback of the Indo-Pakistan War of September 1965, adequate raw materials were also not available owing to a reduced inflow of external resources, two successive poor harvests, and the need to avoid additional pressure on the balance of payments situation. Various measures taken—indicated below under specific headings—helped to ease the supply position, but the performance remained erratic ; so that as a result, instead of growing at the rate of 13 per cent annually as planned, the output of large-scale industries rose by only 6.3 per cent in 1965/66, 10.6 per cent in 1966/67, 7.7 per cent in 1967/68, 10.8 per cent in 1968/69, and 7.5 per cent in 1969/70, giving a cumulative annual growth rate of 8.6 per cent. Production dislocation between the end of 1968 and early 1969, stemming from political and labour unrest, also caused a shortfall. Small-Scale manufacturing grew at an annual rate of less than 2.5 per cent, reducing over-all industrial growth to 6.8 per cent per annum.

Industrial Policy : The first industrial policy announced after Independence

stressed the following basic points :

- — priority to industries based on indigenous raw materials, such as jute, cotton, hides and skins;
- — free enterprise in the private sector, subject to certain conditions;
- — national ownership of public utilities;
- — development of consumer-goods industries for import substitution;
- — planning for heavy industries within the framework of long-term objectives;
- — demarcation of responsibilities between the Central and Provincial Governments.

Various institutional devices were introduced to implement this policy. These included setting up the Development Board; the Pakistan Industrial Finance Corporation, later replaced by the Industrial Development Bank of Pakistan; the Pakistan Industrial Credit and Investment Corporation; the Tariff Commission; Pakistan Industrial Development Corporation, later divided into two corporations, one for each zone of the country; Directorate of Cottage and Small Industries, later transformed into East and West Pakistan Small Industries Corporations; the Refugee Rehabilitation Finance Corporation, and the First Five-Year Plan 1955-60, later followed up by the Second Plan 1960-65, the Prospective Plan 1965-85 and the Third Plan 1965-70 (See the chapter on Development Planning). The First Plan summarizes industrial objectives and priorities as follows :

(i) "The first objective of industrial development is to produce, with the resources that can be devoted to it, the largest amount of those products which are wanted most in the country"—with priority to those industries on which the largest return on investment might be expected, except for such basic long-term needs as oil exploration and iron and steel production.

(ii) "The second objective of industrial development, and in many ways the most important in the present circumstances of the country, is to earn and save foreign exchange.

(iii) "The third objective . . . is to put people to work; to employ the labour force usefully and for the benefit of the country . . .Large profits from new investments will permit the development of social services and create new jobs.

(iv) "Output may be increased, first, by making better use of present plants. Plants that now work one or two shifts should work two or three, and adequate supply of imported raw materials and replacement parts should be assured. Equipment should be properly maintained. Methods of management should be improved. The number of skilled workmen, supervisors, and managers should be increased by educational programmes. More effort should be devoted to applied industrial research.

"Output may also be increased by investing in the modernization of existing plants; in auxiliary equipment to balance existing firms; in the establishment of new firms in existing industries; and in the creation of new industries. Of the new investment proposed by the Plan, approximately

30 per cent is in the field of industry.

(v) "Since resources are inadequate to permit all of the industrial investments that would be desirable, choices have had to be made. The primary factor to be considered in making such choices, of necessity, has been that of prospective foreign exchange benefits, in the form either of the rate of exchange savings to be realized by substituting domestic production for imports, or of the rate of exchange earnings to be obtained by producing for export. In addition, consideration has been given to the comparative profitability of different investments and to their comparative contributions to national income. Recognition has been given, too, to the desirability of promoting the use of indigenous raw materials, and to the need for maintaining opportunities for employment, particularly in the case of small industries.

(vi) "The Government promotes industrial development by itself engaging in productive undertakings. Through the Pakistan Industrial Development Corporation, it builds new plants, establishes them as going concerns, and sells them to private owners. It is also the policy of Government to encourage, assist, and guide private enterprise. It does so by providing credit, granting tax concessions, giving tariff protection, setting up industrial estates, and inviting foreign investment. In addition, the Government controls private development by granting or denying the right to start new enterprises, to issue securities, and to import capital equipment and raw materials.

(vii) "Realization of the Plan will change the present pattern of the nation's large-scale industry. It will leave the cotton textile industry at the top of the list, in terms of capital invested, but will increase the relative importance of fertilizer production, sugar refining, gas transmission, cement manufacturing, and ship-building. It will increase the capacity of the jute-goods industry by three quarters. It will double capacity in sugar, cigarettes, and cement, and quadruple capacity in ship-building. It will provide capacity where none existed before for the production of fertilizer, card and strawboard, newsprint, and rayon and cellophane."

The industrial policy released in February 1959 embodied the following principles:

(a) main reliance on private enterprise and initiative within the guide lines of the targets and strategy of Development Plans;

(b) recognition of the useful role of foreign investment and suitable safeguards and concessions for its attraction;

(c) expansion of production, increased employment and extensive training of technical personnel, with the ultimate aim of raising the people's standard of living.

(d) fullest utilization of raw materials available in the country and attention to industries based on agriculture;

(e) preference for economically backward areas in the location of new industries, so that benefit of development might be equally shared by the people of all regions;

(f) promotion of medium, small and cottage industries.

The policy has been backed by related administrative and organizational measures. Tax concessions to private investors included liberal depreciation allowances on plant, machinery and buildings; tax exemptions on new investments made in approved industries; tax exemption for expenditure of a capital nature on scientific research and on contributions or grants made to institutions engaged in scientific research or training; exemption from interest on foreign loans; 5 to 10 per cent rebate in super-tax on profits; exemption from inter-corporate tax on the dividend income received by the parent company from any subsidiary company set up in the other wing of the country; tax-holiday for two, four and six years—depending on the area in which they were located—for industries set up between April 1959 and 1970; depreciation allowances on the written-down value of capital assets after the tax-holiday period. Tax-holiday eligibility extended to a wide range of industries, including those based on indigenous raw materials as well as those engaged in the exploration and extraction of mineral deposits.

Other measures for the promotion of industrial development have included incentives for foreign investors; control of cartels and monopolies; developmental and financial institutions; vigorous export promotion drives, expansion of facilities for research and training (on the latter, also see the chapters on Education and Manpower).

Foreign Investors: The following incentives and guarantees have been offered to foreign private investors :

- adherence to private enterprise and economic liberalization;
- freedom from nationalization;
- guaranteed repatriation of capital investment, including capital gains;
- unrestricted remittances of current profits;
- flexibility regarding the extent of local participation;
- tax-holiday with no distinction between foreign investors and Pakistanis for this purpose;
- liberal depreciation allowances;
- income-tax exemption on salaries of foreign technicians for 36 months;
- facility of family remittances to foreign nationals;
- availability of long term credit facilities from industrial financing institutions;
- tariff protection to deserving industries;
- guaranteed import of raw materials and spares, subject to availability of foreign exchange;
- wide export incentive concessions;
- a central organization, namely, the Department of Investment Promotion and Supplies, to deal expeditiously with all foreign investment proposals and to solve day-to-day difficulties faced by foreign-owned enterprises;
- relief from double taxation;
- guarantees to US investors against losses due to possible expropri-

ation and currency inconvertibility under the US Investment Guarantee Programme.

Control of Cartels and Monopolies : The Government's directive for the elimination of cartels and monopolies and for the equitable and widest possible distribution of wealth has had a limited impact on the industrial sector, although it has led to such measures as making the presence of the public sector felt wherever there was a risk of the emergence of monopolies. Encouragement of newcomers in the field of simple manufacture, and reservation by banks of an increasing percentage of advances for small borrowers, has had some effect. In order to ensure and encourage maximum utilization of installed capacity, the Government has assumed powers for taxing industries on the basis of production capacity. This instrument has been used in a selective manner. It is now applied to sugar, vegetable oil, textile, and cement industries, and is being extended to certain others. The needs of small and medium industries have been met by soft credits, greater banking facilities, the People's Credit Scheme of the National Bank of Pakistan, and separate provisions in the Industrial Investment Schedule.

East Pakistan's growth of capital formation remains far below the desired level, despite measures taken to stimulate the private sector. Now the operation of credit institutions has been redesigned and adapted to the special requirements of that Province, and the headquarters of some financial institutions, such as the IDBP, are being shifted to East Pakistan so as to facilitate rapid industrialization in that Province. Industrialists of limited resources have been invited to join in with the East Pakistan Industrial Development Corporation to set up factories and mills, with prospects of ultimate ownership.

Industrial Bias in Commercial Policy: There is a marked industrial bias in the Government's commercial policy, and foreign exchange is liberally earmarked for the import of industrial raw materials. The Export Bonus Scheme, and the linking of import licensing with export performance in certain fields, has given industrialists more opportunities for the development of their production (see chapter on Foreign Trade).

The Tariff Commission considers and recommends protective tariffs or other forms of assistance for the *protection* of industries. The idea is that the industries concerned should be able to dispense with the necessity of protection within a reasonable period, and that, during the period of assistance, the cost to the consumer, or to the State, should not be excessive. During the period of April 1968 to February 1969, the Tariff Commission submitted its report on 11 industries for grant of protection, of which the Government granted protection to only three: caustic soda, soda ash, and car and truck tyres and tubes.

There is almost no *price control* ; but the Price Stabilization Wing co-ordinates and controls the steps taken in various fields to help maintain a basic stability of prices. From time to time, surveys are conducted about the distributive channels of industries, cost structures, and the impact of various taxes on the prices of essential commodities. (However, see section on Prices

in the chapter on Private Enterprise and Commerce.)

Industrial Estates : Industrial estates, on a large, medium and small scale, have been set up at various places with such facilities for industries as roads, railway connections, post and telegraph offices, water and power. Wherever possible, proximity of agricultural raw materials is also ensured. The first of these estates were set up between 1953 and 1955 at Karachi and Hyderabad in West Pakistan, and soon after at Tejgaon in East Pakistan. The first Karachi Estate, which covers a gross area of 4,000 acres, has some 500 factories which employ about 55,000 workers—roughly half the total industrial workers in Karachi. The Second Plan made provisions for setting up nine large-scale estates in East Pakistan and seven in West Pakistan, as well as 19 small-scale estates in the East and 9 in the West. By 1968/69, the East Pakistan Small Industries Corporation (EPSIC) had established 18 small-scale estates, at a total cost of Rs. 31.4 million and covering all district headquarters except the Chittagong Hill Tracts and Patuakhali. The total number of plots developed in these estates is 3,368, of which by the middle of 1970, 1,200 plots had been allocated to 724 parties. The proposed number of industries is 1,992; and so far 150 units have started production and 142 are under construction. The West Pakistan Small Industries Corporation (WPSIC) has set up nine industrial estates, at Peshawar, Gujrat, Sialkot, Gujranwala, Lahore, Bahawalpur, Sukkur, Larkana and Quetta. Involving an estimated cost of Rs. 60.16 million, these estates offer 2,276 fully developed factory sites to entrepreneurs on easy instalment bases.

PIDC : The Pakistan Industrial Development Corporation was first established in 1950 (Board of Directors appointed in 1952) as one central organization. Its object was to promote such industrial enterprise as private industrialists were either unable or unwilling to undertake—to supplement rather than replace private enterprise. In 1962 the PIDC was decentralized to form the East Pakistan Industrial Development Corporation (EPIDC) and the West Pakistan Industrial Development Corporation (WPIDC), and these have concentrated on industries which

— require heavy initial capital investment;
— involve complicated processes requiring specialized skills or extensive experience;
— rectify the concentration of other industries;
— ensure better balance in development.

By 1962, the PIDC had completed 55 projects. After its bifurcation into zonal Corporations, the East Pakistan Industrial Development Corporation has been promoting general industrial development. This has been necessary because of limitations of the private sector in that Province.

EPIDC : Against its Third Plan allocation of Rs. 2,007 million, EPIDC has invested Rs. 1,240 million (from a provision of Rs. 1,647.2 million) during the Third Plan period, with which it has set up 35 projects.

The allocations to EPIDC cover the following industrial fields: jute

textiles; paper and board; ship-building; sugar; cotton textiles; non-metallic mineral products; basic metals; chemicals and fertilizer; engineering; fuels and minerals; and miscellaneous enterprises.

Of the 42 on-going schemes at the beginning of the first year of the Plan (1965/66), six schemes, costing Rs. 78 million, were completed in 1965/66. The six projects completed were : Kohinoor Jute Mills, Afil Jute Mills, Khulna Hardboard Factory, a Polythene Bag Unit, a DDT Factory, and 500 looms at M.C.M. Ltd. Utilization of the first year's allocation of Rs. 239 million amounted to Rs. 195 million, *i.e.* 81.6 per cent.

The second year (1966/67) carried an allocation of Rs. 351 million, of which Rs. 225 million (64.2 per cent) were utilized. Four projects were completed, including the Chittagong Steel Mills and three more jute mills, at a total cost of Rs. 385 million.

An allocation of Rs. 350 million was made available during the third year (1967/68), of which Rs. 285 million (81.4 per cent) were utilized. Ten projects were completed: the Eastern Refinery, Shyampur Sugar Mills, Ground-nut Oil Mills, Mubarakganj Sugar Mills, and six jute mills.

In 1968/69, during the fourth year, Rs. 371 million were allocated, of which Rs. 335 million were utilized, which gives a performance ratio of about 90 per cent. In this period, one new jute mill was opened and nine other projects have since been completed, including cable and diesel plants as well as jute and sugar mills.

For the fifth year (1969/70), the EPIDC received Rs. 336 million for a variety of projects, including the installation of 1,500 looms in three new and two existing jute mills. Within the year six projects were completed at a total cost of Rs. 93 million, including three jute mills (capacity 750 looms), two sugar mills (capacity 20,000 tons), and an ammonium sulphate plant (capacity 12,000 tons). Construction of the North Bengal Paper Mill at Paksey, Pabna, and the triple super-phosphate plant at Chittagong (capacity 32,000 tons) has also been completed .

WPIDC : Since its inception in 1952, PIDC/WPIDC has completed 58 projects by the end of the Third Plan, with a capital investment of Rs. 1,152 million, including Rs. 233.73 million from the private sector, collaborating in all fields except ship-building, minerals and surveying. Of these, 18 projects have been handed over to private enterprise, while WPIDC continues to manage 40 industrial projects, employing some 30,000 workers, for fertilizers, cement, ship-building and repairs, chemicals, sugar, coal and salt, woollen textiles and carpets. The estimated value of goods produced by WPIDC projects in 1968/69 amounted to Rs. 280 million as compared to Rs. 258 million for 1967/68. Output for 1969/70 is estimated at around Rs. 300 million.

The financial results of WPIDC-managed projects have shown persistent improvement over the years. Net profits earned on investment in 16 projects established since 1965 amounted to Rs. 47.9 million in 1967/68, which works out at 8.8 per cent on the total investment of Rs. 543.6 million, as against 7 per cent in 1966/67 and 4.7 per cent in 1965/66. During 1968/69,

however, the return dropped to 6.7 per cent, which was mainly due to an additional investment of Rs. 42 million in four new projects, without a concomitant increase in profits, and losses suffered in certain projects, such as the Bannu Sugar Mills, Karachi Shipyard and Engineering Works and the White Cement Industries Ltd., due to special difficulties faced in this year. (For WPIDC's Management Institute see chapter on Manpower).

WPIDC's Third Plan allocation, for both continuing and new schemes, amounted to Rs. 859.3 million, of which Rs. 806.3 million were earmarked for the industrial and the rest for the mining sector. During 1967/68, five projects were completed: Timber Seasoning Plant, Pirawala; Timber Preservation and Treatment Plant, Havelian; Balancing of Natural Gas Fertilizer Factory, Multan; Extension of Lyallpur Chemicals Fertilizer Ltd., Jaranwala; and Installation of Mechanical Haulage at the Kalabagh Salt Mines.

During 1968/69 five projects were completed, among which were: extension of the Zeal-Pak Cement Factory, Hyderabad; extension of the Pak-American Fertilizers Ltd., Iskandarabad; the National Gas Fertilizers Factory, Multan; and gas distribution lines in Sind.

Among the heavy industry projects, the Pakistan Machine Tool Factory, Landhi (Revised), commenced partial production. in November 1968. The Heavy Mechanical Complex, Taxila, and the Phase II/Part I scheme of the Karachi Shipyard and Engineering Works, are all in advanced stages of completion. The revised feasibility report on the Heavy Forge and Foundry, Taxila, by Chinese experts has been submitted and is under examination. A detailed project report on the Heavy Electrical Complex, Taxila, is presently under preparation by Russian experts.

During 1969/70 another four projects have been completed at a cost of Rs. 139 million, including further extension of the Zeal-Pak Cement Factory; extension of the Pak-American Fertilizer Ltd., Daudkhel; extension of gas distribution lines to Hyderabad and Kotri; modernization and development of rock-salt mines.

Financial Institutions : Financial institutions have contributed greatly to the growth of industry by providing large funds at reasonable rates of interest. These include the Pakistan Industrial Credit and Investment Corporation (PICIC), meant for large enterprises; the Industrial Development Bank of Pakistan (IDBP), designed for medium and small-scale industries; the West Pakistan Small Industries Corporation (WPSIC); and the East Pakistan Small Industries Corporation (EPSIC). (For details on PICIC and IDBP see the chapter on Finance and Banking.)

EPSIC : Established in 1957 to promote the growth and development of small industries in East Pakistan, and to create such infrastructural facilities for these as would provide the base for their expansion, the East Pakistan Small Industries Corporation has so far set up 18 industrial estates, at a total cost of Rs. 314 million—one in each district headquarter of the Province. These estates, ranging from 10 to 120 acres, with roads, electricity, water, drains and other infrastructural facilities, provide industrial plots to entre-

preneurs on 20 years' payment terms. The following projects have been set up at a cost of about Rs. 13 million : three pilot projects for agricultural implements, glazed pottery, and for coir and copra; one model production unit each for cheese and butter and for cigars and cheroots; eight textile facility centres; four service facility centres for wood, leather, cane and bamboo; and one engineering service institute. Under the 1969/70 Works Programme, 34 projects have been taken up in rural areas. In addition to substantial loans from banks, the private sector of small industries received loans totalling Rs. 16.6 million from EPSIC and IDBP, of which EPSIC advanced Rs. 9.32 million for 858 units, and IDBP Rs. 7.28 million.

WPSIC : Established in 1965 to promote the development of small and cottage industries, including handicrafts, the West Pakistan Small Industries Corporation now runs 84 projects established at a capital cost of Rs. 54.5 million. Its public sector projects include nine small-scale industrial estate sites at Bahawalpur, Gujranwala, Gujrat, Lahore, Larkana, Peshawar, Quetta, Sialkot and Sukkur. Eleven craft shops marketing the products, or artisans and craftsmen functioning under it, sold handicrafts valued at Rs. 1.36 million during April-December 1968. The Corporation also runs handicraft design and training centres and 13 carpet centres. (Also see the chapter on Manpower.) The Annual Development Plan for 1969/70 allocated Rs. 12.5 million to the Corporation for further developments. And within this year the production of the various centers amounted to goods valued at Rs. 4.8 million.

Department of Investment Promotion and Supplies : The Department is part of the Central Ministry of Industries and acts as a single, authoritative source of information, advice and assistance for industrial investment. Among other things, it provides the following services :

(a) dissemination of information regarding economic conditions, laws, procedures and specific investment opportunities in the country, and advice and guidance to investors;

(b) processing of all applications for the establishment of new industrial concerns with total or partial foreign investment through the relevant ministries and departments of the Central and Provincial Governments, and communication of the final orders of the Government to the parties concerned;

(c) active assistance to foreign and local investors in obtaining import licences, land, building materials, power, water, railway siding, raw materials, technical help or advice, or any other facility which requires the sanction of the Central or Provincial Government or any statutory body;

(d) any other help required in the solution of difficulties faced by investors.

The Department is responsible for regulating the entry of foreign investment in commercial and professional fields, and the employment of foreign nationals in commercial, professional and industrial concerns. Furthermore, it looks after the promotion of economic co-operation with friendly countries, particularly under the aegis of the Regional Co-operation

for Development (RCD)

Industrial Investment Schedules : An important function of this Investment Promotion Department is the preparation of Industrial Investment Schedules which provide guidance to investors and entrepreneurs, both Pakistani and foreign. The Schedules indicate a broad field of industries claiming priority in the development plans, from which the investors can pick and choose. They constitute the main instrument through which the five-year plans' investment targets for the private sector can be promoted, by channelling private sector investments into desired fields. To facilitate this process, administrative procedures have been reduced to a minimum and the financing agencies have been instructed to direct future investments to the set priorities.

A Comprehensive Industrial Investment Schedule (CIIS) prepared by the Department listed 200 industries, with an aggregated target of Rs. 10,885 million (Rs. 5,024.5 million for East Pakistan and Rs. 5,860.7 million for West Pakistan), in relation to the Plan's envisaged investment of Rs. 8,300 million in the private sector.

However, due to reduced availability of external resources and difficulties in the balance of payments position, the Government in mid-1968, revised this Schedule to reflect the new industrial strategy by promoting the expansion of such industries as are relatively less capital-intensive, or are based on domestic raw materials, or are export-oriented. In July 1968, the Priority List of Industries (PLI) of the CIIS was issued by the Department. This Schedule listed 157 industries (90 in the large/medium sector and 67 in the small sector) for development on a priority basis up to the end of the Third Plan period, with a view to effect an improvement in the balance of payments position. The priorities are set out in three main groups under the large/medium sector, namely: (a) Export-oriented Industries; (b) Agro-based/Service Industries; (c) Import Substitution Industries.

Since the operation of the CIIS (including PLI), that is during the Third Plan period of July 1965 to March 1970, an amount of Rs. 9,483.3 million has been approved for investment.

Pay-As-You-Earn Scheme : The Scheme (PAYE), first introduced in June 1962, and revised in January 1967, has played an important role in promoting industrialization and exports. According to the Scheme, complete plants and equipment can be imported from those suppliers who are prepared to accept payment out of the export earnings of the products of the same industrial unit. There is no rigidity in regard to the period of repayment. A reasonable rate of interest is allowed. So long as the Export Bonus Scheme remains in force, Government will allow Bonus under the Scheme on the export earnings of industrial units set up.

The Scheme has been quite successful, particularly in recent years. Sanctions approved between July 1965 and December 1969 amounted to Rs. 365.3 million.

With a view to making the scheme more effective, the Government have recently announced the following modifications :

(a) The operation of the scheme will be confined to export industries, particularly those based on agriculture, and will include cotton yarn and thread, mentioned in the Priority List of Industries. Exceptions may be allowed where there are definite export prospects, sufficient to service the debt involved.

(b) The ban on import of sacking looms by new units under the Scheme has been lifted, and facilities have been extended to the expansion of existing jute mills.

(c) Government/State Bank of Pakistan may provide a counter-guarantee when commercial banks provide a guarantee of repayment as a primary guarantor.

(d) Entitlement of normal Bonus as notified from time to time, will be available to industries established under the Scheme.

(e) The industrial units established under the Scheme would be allowed up to 20 per cent of the FOB value of their export earnings to meet their debt liability and other foreign exchange payments on account of royalty, technical fee and incidental charges. If in any year the liability cannot be met out of this allowed percentage, the shortfall, if any, can be met through cash-cum-bonus.

(f) All cases requiring a ceiling above 20 per cent for the repayment of debt liability must be submitted to Government.

(g) Import of raw materials by units set up under the Scheme will be governed by the normal import policy announced by the Government from time to time.

It is expected that with these improved terms and conditions, greater incentive and interest will be taken in establishing industries based on indigenous raw materials for export under the PAYE Scheme.

Investment Advisory Centre (IACP) : Established in 1963 in collaboration with US-AID, this Centre provides pre-investment advisory services to the Government of Pakistan, the IDBP, PICIC, and private organizations and individuals. The services rendered were free of cost until June 1967, when it was decided to charge all Government agencies requiring its advice fees equal to that of private clients, the object being to cover all its own administrative costs.

In the first four years of its operation, it had handled 400 projects in public and private sectors, including two for the United Nations Industrial Development Organization and two for RCD Joint-Purpose Industries. From July 1968 to March 1970, the Centre completed deliberations on 12 new study-cum-survey projects, while another 30 are pending. At present IACP is engaged in research on a number of projects and studies on behalf of Government and semi-Government Departments and the private sector. Up to February 1970, the Centre had completed as many as 412 projects, including textiles, chemicals, fertilizers and metals. IACP has also opened a zonal office at Dacca to assist investors in securing technical advice.

Finally, with a view to attracting German and American capital, as well as providing information for potential foreign and local investors, the Centre

plans opening an Information Cell, which will also supply periodic information to prospective investors through Investment Centres already established in New York and Düsseldorf

Pakistan Council of Scientific and Industrial Research (PCSIR *founded in 1953*) : This Council has developed a number of new processes for the optimum utilization of indigenous resources. Of the 200 new processes developed by its laboratories, some 50 patents have been leased to industrialists for commercial exploitation. Of these, about 40 processes have gone into production. (For details, see chapter on Scientific Research).

Central Testing Laboratories (*founded in 1951*): These laboratories, set up by the Government at Dacca, Karachi and Lahore, are concerned with the scientific assessment of industrial raw materials, finished products and exportable commodities, and provide guidance to Government purchase and inspection departments, including Defence Services, indigenous industries and private enterprise, at nominal charges. During the year ending March 1969, the laboratories tested and reported on 4,066 samples received from both public and private sources.

Pakistan Standards Institution (PSI *founded in 1958*): This body prescribes national standards and exercises quality control over various commodities, particularly in order to win the confidence of foreign buyers, and thus boost exports. Its branch office in Dacca is preparing draft standard specifications on such items as jute, tea, coir, plywood and tea chests. For selected exportable goods, it is responsible, under the Certification Marks Ordinance of 1961, for enforcing compulsory standardization to ensure that only quality goods are exported; for others, it encourages the voluntary adoption of Certification Marks. PSI has so far prepared 709 standards.

In the first phase of the Certification Programme, five items (electric fans, induction motors, cement, dry-cell batteries, wet batteries) were taken up and compulsory Certification Marks enforced with effect from June 1, 1966. In the second phase of the Programme, seven items (two-pin plugs with sockets, three-pin plugs with sockets, thumbler switches, electric fans with regulators, electric irons, immersion heaters, boiling plates) were taken up, and Compulsory Certification Marks enforced from July 1, 1968. In the third phase, four items (diesel engines, soaps, safety razor blades, fluorescent tubes) have been subjected to Certification, and enforced from July 1, 1969. From July 1970, another six items have been brought under similar compulsory marking.

Patent Office : The Patent Office grants patents for new inventions and registers new industrial designs. From April 1968 to March 1969, 1,310 patent applications and 179 design applications were received, of which 928 patents for new inventions were granted and 55 new designs were registered. On March 31, 1969, there were 6,854 patented inventions in force.

The Pakistan Industrial Technical Assistance Centre (PITAC *founded in 1957*): This Centre advises industry on the improvement of production methods; the introduction of controls, procedures and techniques for reducing ineffectiveness and wastage of materials; the improvement of equipment and machinery utilization; and the improvement of the quality of products.

A major aspect of PITAC is the organization of intensive short-term training courses for industrial workers. This skill-development programme aims at creating a multiplier effect, so that the personnel trained are able to train other technical personnel working with them or under them.

PITAC further assists industry in designing and manufacturing high precision dies, moulds, jigs, fixtures and gauges that are up to international standards. Its shops at Lahore and Dacca had, between April and December 1968, filled production orders for such items from private and public sector industries, at an estimated cost of over Rs. 5,00,000. The Dacca Centre has undertaken the manufacture of broyd jute looms of 168-inch reed space and produced 13 looms of this size up to December 1968.

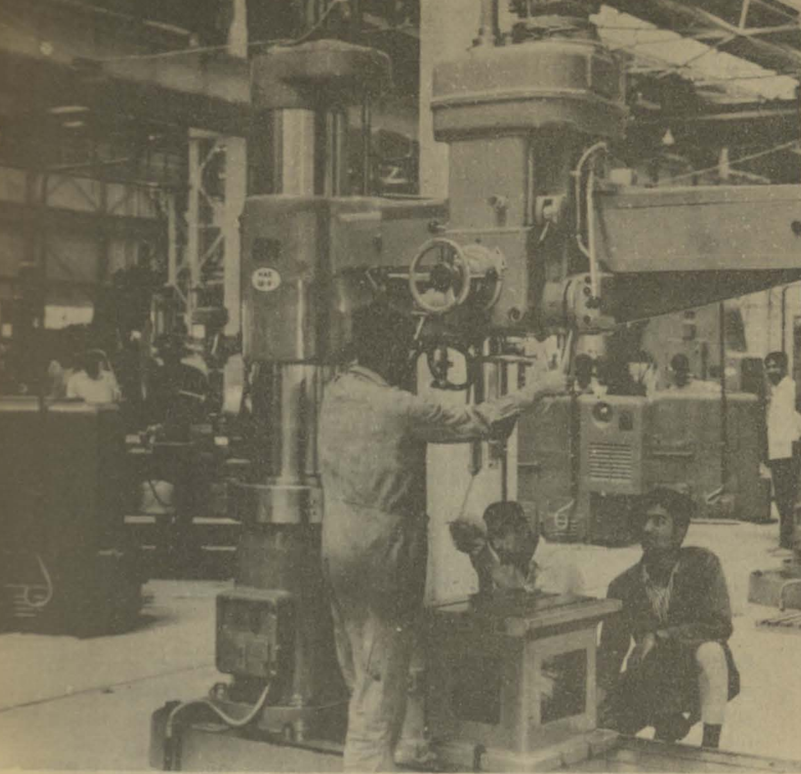
The PITAC centres have also been conducting courses in advanced metal trade practices, such as machine and tool operations, electroplating, foundry, heat treatment, welding and pattern-making. By April 1970, it had trained a total of 951 persons, including 112 persons trained between July 1969 and April 1970. In the same period, PITAC catered to job orders, valued at Rs. 6,20,000, for designing and manufacturing dies, moulds, jigs, fixtures, gauges, and similar other precision tools.

Swedish-Pakistani Institutes of Technology: These institutes have been set up at Karachi (Landhi), Gujrat and Kaptai as a result of bilateral agreements between the Royal Swedish Government and the Government of Pakistan, reached in 1955, with a view to (a) providing theoretical as well as practical training in selected fields of technology and (b) setting up production units allied with this training. With the re-establishment of the provinces in 1970, all the institutes now function under the aegis of the relevant Provincial Government.

The Landhi Institute has six divisions : (i) wood-working (cabinet making and joinery), (ii) garments, (iii) welding, (iv) electrical, (v) mechanical, and (vi) two production units: Pakwear and the Model Furniture Industry. Short courses offering 220-hour instruction to craftsmen and small entrepreneurs, already engaged in production, were started in February 1967 and are being continued.

The Gujrat Institute started instruction and training in instrument technology in October 1965, and by September 1967 had added training courses in four more technologies: electrical, automobile, mechanical and welding. The Institute has been integrated with the West Pakistan Board of Technical Education, Lahore, which, in 1968, conducted the first examination for the Diploma of Associate Engineers. Of the 74 candidates who appeared in this examination, 35 (74.3 per cent) were declared successful.

The Kaptai Institute, which started operations in 1963, has planned



Heavy Mechanical Complex, Taxila.

courses on the lines of polytechnics, with additional facilities for practical training on the job. Students receive financial support to cover part of their expenses. At present there are 200 students enrolled in four technologies: industrial wood technology; automobile technology; electrical installation and maintenance technology; and machine-shop technology.

Other Organizations : Other bodies concerned with the promotion of industrial development, are the Institute of Personnel Training, attached to the Industrial Development Corporations; and the Departments of Industrial Planning and Development set up by the Central and Provincial Governments in the Industrial Division of the Secretariat; and the Colombo Plan Bureau of Technical Co-operation.

Industrial Production : Up to the late fifties there was a heavy concentration on the production of consumer goods, which claimed over 60 per cent of all industrial investment. Agricultural processing, food products, and textiles attracted most attention. But since then, there has been a growing process of diversification, with a rapidly expanding production of fertilizers, cement,

paper, newsprint, wire, cable and various chemicals. A beginning has also been made in the development of heavy industries, including the Chittagong Steel Mill, which started operations in 1968. The accent now is on medium and heavy capital goods industries to help import substitution, expand savings for increased investment, and improve the balance of trade, even though more heavy machinery will be brought in for the manufacture of capital goods.

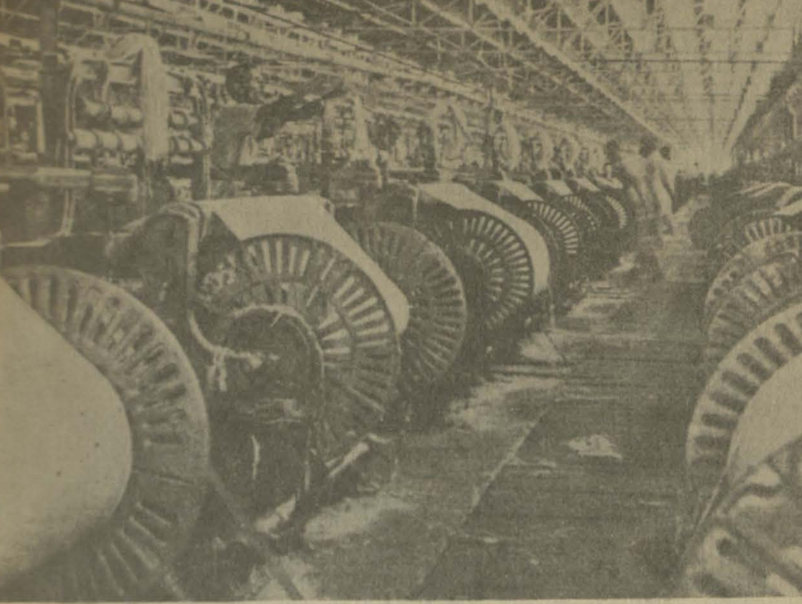
Together with this emphasis, a greater dispersal of industries has also been achieved. Whereas before the beginning of the sixties, industries were mainly concentrated in Karachi, Lyallpur and Lahore, financial and developmental incentives, especially infrastructure availability in previously undeveloped regions, has promoted the growth of industries in such areas as Hyderabad, Kotri, Sukkur, Rahimyar Khan, Multan, Sheikhupura, Gujranwala, Nowshera, Mardan and Peshawar, as well as spreading outside Dacca and Chittagong to such areas as Khulna, Kushtia, Bogra and Sylhet in East Pakistan.

A more detailed picture of the country's industrial production and productive capacity is given in the following brief sectoral notes on major industries.

Cotton Textiles : This industry, which produces about 30 per cent of the manufacturing sector's total contribution to GNP, is the country's largest and most developed industry, employing over 200,000 persons. During the Third Plan period, its installed capacity has increased from 2.5 million spindles and 37,000 looms in 1964/65 to 3.1 million spindles and 38,000 looms by 1970, against the Third Plan target of 4 million spindles and 70,000 looms. The production of cotton cloth went up to 786 million yards in 1969/70 from 771 million yards in 1968/69. Similarly, the output of yarn,

Spindle Section of a cotton textile mill in West Pakistan.





A jute mill in East Pakistan.

which was 622 million lbs. in 1968/69, increased to 725 million lbs. in 1969/70. Total exports of cotton fabrics and yarn rose from Rs. 417 million in 1967/68 and Rs. 459 million in 1968/69 to Rs. 538 million in 1969/70.

Jute Manufactures : The output of jute goods increased from 518,000 tons in 1968/69 to 591,000 tons in 1969/70, with export earnings rising from Rs. 620 million in 1967/68 to Rs. 789 million in 1969/70. The installed capacity grew from 21,000 looms in mid-1969, to 22,600 in 1969/70, against 25,000 looms aimed at in the Third Plan, under which several new jute mills are nearing completion. At present over 50 per cent of the jute grown in Pakistan is processed within the country.

An important development in the jute trade during 1967/68 was the revision and rationalization of varying grades of jute. At this time there were some 100 different grades, which created considerable confusion in the world market; now the number of grades has been reduced to 12. Another major feature has been the abolition of the export duty on jute, since November 1967, which has strengthened its competitive position in the world market.

Chemical Fertilizers : Development of the fertilizer industry is progressing steadily. With a view to meeting the growing demand for nitrogenous fertilizers, the WPIDC has completed work on increasing the capacity of its factory at Multan to 100,000 tons of ammonium nitrate and 59,000 tons of urea, and work has been completed on doubling the output of the Pak-American Fertilizer Factory from 50,000 to 100,000 tons. Another ambitious scheme of the WPIDC for stepping up production of ammonium sulphate

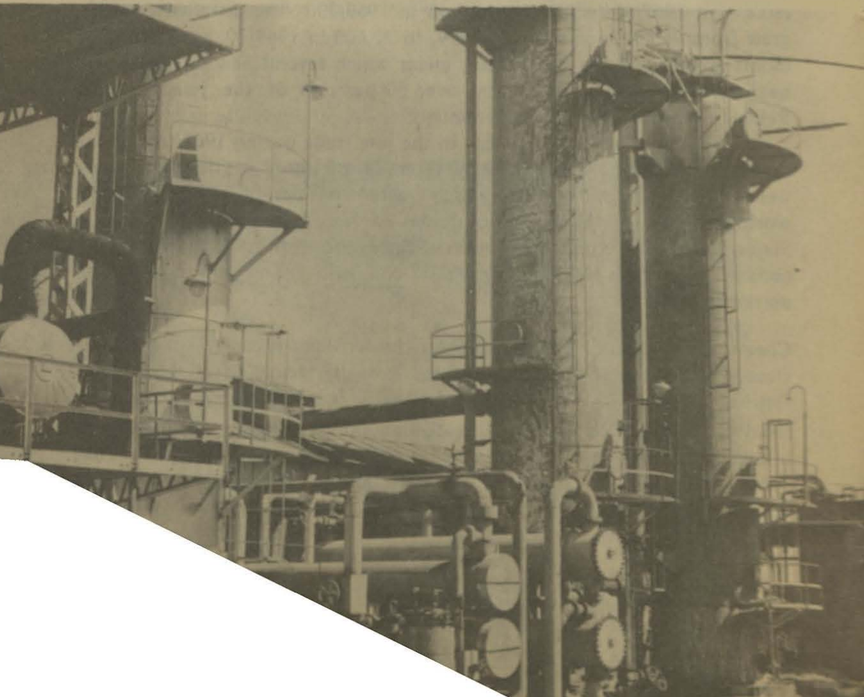
by 600,000 tons at the Daudkhel Factory has been approved by the Government. A potash fertilizer plant with an annual production capacity of 17,500 tons, based on the Dhariala brine reserve, is being set up. The expansion of the Chemical and Fertilizer Factory at Lyallpur, from 18,000 to 54,000 tons, has been completed, and commercial production has started.

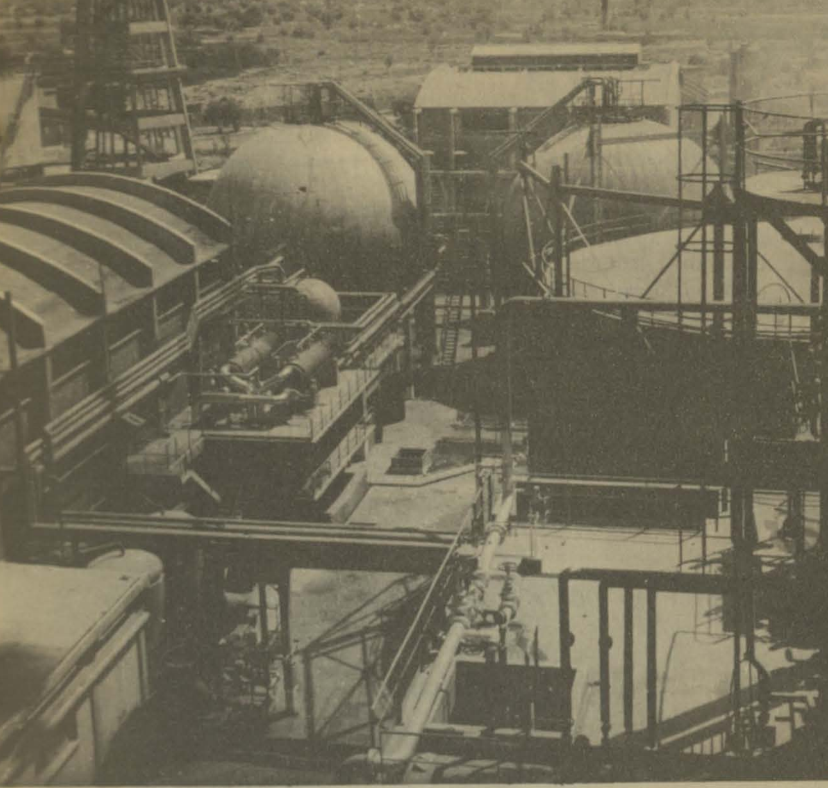
The private sector has played a major part in the development of the fertilizer industry, particularly in West Pakistan, where a nitrogenous fertilizer factory at Mari, in Sindh, will go into production by 1972, with a rated capacity of 340,000 tons of urea. Another private plant in Karachi, with a production capacity of 150,000 tons of triple superphosphate has been commissioned. In addition, three private firms have been permitted by the Government to set up three urea factories at Sheikhupura, Mirpur and Lyallpur, each with an annual production capacity of 340,000 tons. Work on these projects is in progress.

In East Pakistan, one triple superphosphate factory at Chittagong, with an annual production capacity of 32,000 tons, has started production. Work on the establishment of the Natural Gas Fertilizer Factory at Ghorasal has commenced, and it has gone into trial production. The ammonium sulphate plant at Fenchuganj, with an annual production capacity of 12,000 tons has been completed.

The total output of urea, superphosphate and ammonium sulphate rose from 186,241 tons in 1966/67 to 479,000 tons, in 1968/69, and to 737,000 tons in 1969/70 (in terms of ammonium sulphate). Maintaining the pace of currently projected developments in fertilizer outputs, the country should be

The Fenchuganj Fertilizer Factory in Sylhet, East Pakistan.





Natural gas fertilizer at Multan,

self-sufficient in respect of fertilizers within the Fourth Plan period of 1970-75, although the present output, at 737,000 tons, is still far from the Third Plan target of 2.5 million tons for self-sufficiency.

Petroleum : The country has four oil refineries at present with a total annual refining capacity of 5.1 million tons, of which 2.5 million tons is produced by the Pakistan Refinery Ltd., Karachi, and 1.5 million tons by the Eastern Refinery Ltd., Chittagong. The other two, National Refinery Ltd., Karachi, and the Attock Oil Company, Rawalpindi, each have an annual output of 550,000 tons.

Until some seven years ago, Attock was the only refinery in Pakistan (established in 1922) refining crude oil from the Khaur Oilfields at the rate of 300,000 tons per year.

In 1958 the Government decided that to cater for the growing petroleum requirements of the country, it would be advantageous to build refineries even in the absence of new indigenous oil resources, as it would ensure a considerable saving of foreign exchange. As a result, the Pakistan Refinery came into being in 1962, with a 60 per cent participation of ESSO, Burmah-

Shell and Caltex, and a 40 per cent local participation. Originally planned to treat 1.5 million tons of crude oil, it has now expanded to achieve an annual output of 2.5 million tons of refined oil.

The National Refinery was established next in 1966, entirely with Pakistani capital and enterprise. It is a specialized refinery built primarily to produce lubricants and asphalt. As by-products, naphtha, Kerosene, diesel oil, furnace oil, etc. are also produced.

The East Pakistan Refinery started production in the middle of 1968. Its annual refining capacity of 1.5 million tons includes motor spirit, jet fuel, kerosene, diesel oil and furnace oil which it is expected, will meet the entire demand for these products in the Eastern zone.

The country's refining capacity now still is about 18 per cent above current requirements, of which it meets 90 per cent; but with the growth of industrialization and mechanization in other sectors of the national economy, the demand for it is growing fast, and the present capacity will not be enough



D.D.T. Facto[ry]
at Chittagong



A pharmaceutical factory at Karachi.

after a few years. Already in 1969/70 the estimated consumption is set at 4.23 million tons, as against 3.91 million tons in 1968/69.

Apart from very substantial savings of foreign exchange, Rs. 40 million of foreign exchange were earned during 1969/70 through the export of petroleum products, and total earnings on the same account for the last four years amounted to Rs. 92.5 million. The total investment of private and public sectors in oil refineries is estimated at Rs. 330 million.

In addition to the refineries, Pakistan at present has 11 oil blending plants—eight in the West and three in the East. (Also see chapter on Fuels and Minerals.)

Furthermore, feasibility reports for a petro-chemical complex to be completed in two stages in 1970 and 1980 have been prepared by the Fauji Foundation, under instructions from the National Economic Council, for West Pakistan, and EPIDC's scheme for industrial chemical complexes has been approved by the Government in July 1970.

Chemicals and Pharmaceuticals : Two big chemical complexes began operations during 1967. The one at Kala Shah Kaku, near Lahore, has four units—producing insecticides, caustic soda, acetate, rayon yarn (annual capacity : 3,000 tons), and extracting oil from cotton seed by the solvent extraction method. The other at Chandragona produces 10 tons of rayon and five tons of transparent wrapping paper per day.

Manufacturing capacities and production in respect of soda ash, caustic soda and sulphuric acid amounted to a total of 139,000 tons in

1969/70 as against 65,000 tons in 1964/65, but this was still far below the Plan target of 862,000 tons. As against actual production, the sanctioned or installed capacity stands at over 300,000 tons.

An ambitious programme for the manufacture of tablets, liquid preparations, injectibles, santonin and ephedrine has already begun. Some basic products, such as liver extracts, ephedrine, penicillin and santonin are being manufactured within the country. A large pharmaceutical project, now under way, will produce anti-malarial drugs, sulpha drugs and anti-histamines. A streptomycin factory at Dacca has been completed, with a capacity of 20 tons a year. A second DDT factory has been completed at Chittagong, with a capacity of 3,000 tons a year, the first having been built by the PIDC during the First Plan period (1955-60).

A polythene bag manufacturing unit with a production capacity of 5 million bags per annum has been completed at Fenchuganj. A naphtha cracking plant has been sanctioned for Karachi. This will produce about 40,000 tons of ethylene, 20,000 tons of propylene, 13,500 tons of C4 fraction and 32,000 tons of gas. A PVC plant, with a production capacity of 5,000 tons

Interior view of Khulna Newsprint Mill.





WPIDC's cement factories at Daudkhel, West Pakistan.

per annum, has gone into production, and a synthetic rubber factory, with a capacity of about 10,000 to 12,000 tons a year, was to go into operation by 1970. A CIBA-EPIDC pesticides project is being set up.

Cement : Against the Plan target of 6 million tons a year, cement production had reached only 2,645,000 tons by 1969/70. However, the addition of the fifth and sixth kilns to the Zeal-Pak Factory at Hyderabad, has more than doubled its annual capacity from 480,000 to 1,080,000 tons. Commercial production has been started in 1969, and should substantially increase the output for 1970/71. The White Cement Factory at Daudkhel started production during 1967/68, with an annual capacity of 15,000 tons. The factories at Rohri and Wah are being extended and modernized in order to expand capacity from 90,000 to 270,000 tons and from 260,000 to 380,000 tons, respectively. These extensions are expected to be completed in 1970/71.

In East Pakistan, work is proceeding on a clinker grinding plant at Chittagong, with a capacity of 300,000 tons, and it is expected to start production before the end of 1971. The Assam-Bengal Cement Factory is being

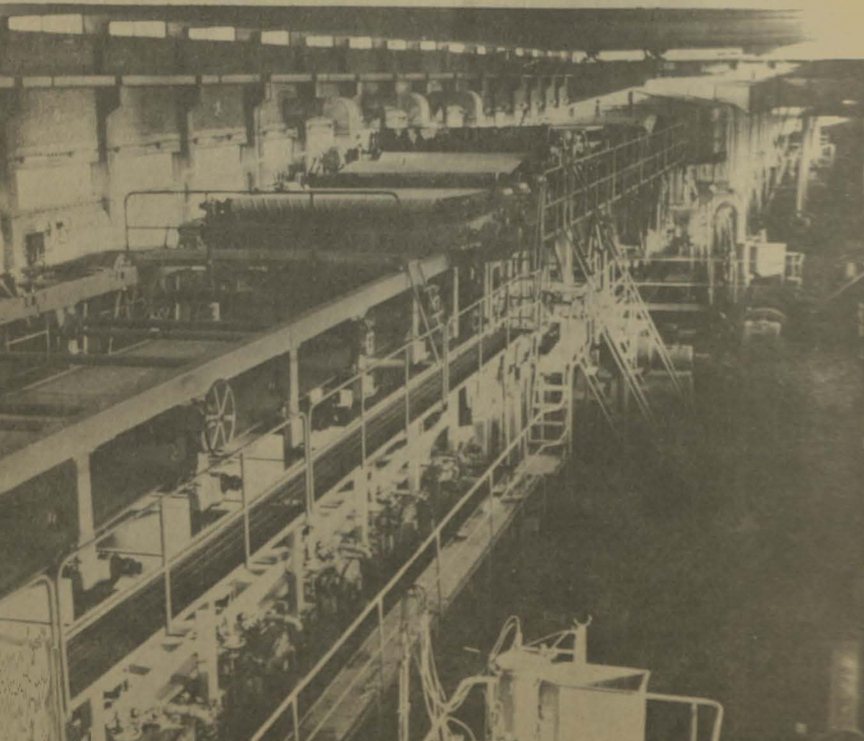
expanded to raise its capacity from 100,000 tons to 250,000 tons.

Paper and Paper Board : Pakistan is now self-sufficient in several varieties of paper, and it even exported paper and paper products worth over Rs. 2.9 million during 1969/70. In view of the expanding demands from both industry and education, the Third Plan aimed at an annual output of 300,000 tons of paper and paper board (160,000 in East and 140,000 in West Pakistan) by 1970, as against the 1964/65 base-year production of 103,000 tons.

However, the present production of different types of paper and paper board is still far short of the Third Plan objective (only about 114,000 tons in 1969/70), and there has been just a slight increase in the last few years, primarily in the production of paper board, from 24,000 tons in 1964/65 to 35,000 tons in 1969/70. A fifth mill nearing completion at Paksey (Pabna) in East Pakistan will have an annual capacity of 15,000 tons. Of the five existing paper and board mills, three are situated in East Pakistan at Chandragona, Khulna and Paksey, and two in West Pakistan at Nowshera and Rahwali.

Leather and Leather Products : The annual production of hides and skins is estimated at about 16 million pieces. Of these, approximately 6 million pieces are tanned within the country and the rest are exported raw. There are now over 80 large and medium-sized tanneries and thousands of small and cottage-scale tanning units. Export earnings from shoes, hides, skins,

A paper and paper board factory at Lahore.



leather and leather products in 1969/70 reached Rs. 214 million.

Sugar : Following setbacks indicated below, the production of sugar in 1969/70 has soared to 600,000 tons, well above the estimated national requirement of 525,000 tons, and only 40,000 tons short of the Third Plan target.

The position of sugar was not very satisfactory during 1968/69, particularly towards the end of 1968, as production declined from 456,000 tons in 1965/66 to 378,000 tons in 1967/68 (466,000 tons in 1968/69). This necessitated the import of large quantities of sugar and the reintroduction of rationing in November 1969 all over West Pakistan to ensure an adequate supply in both urban and rural areas at a controlled price. Another step to augment the supply of sugar, was the ban placed on exports of *gur* and *khandsari*.

In order to achieve further growth, existing units are being expanded, and several sugar mill projects, both in the private and public sectors, are nearing completion. In East Pakistan alone, eight sugar mills are being set up by EPIDC, two of which were commissioned in 1970.

Fruit and Vegetable Preservation : Over 200 factories—mostly small or cottage-scale—have an installed capacity of 15,298 tons. Export earnings for 1969/70 amounted to Rs. 8,155,000 and Rs. 4,723,000 in respect of fruits and vegetables respectively, including fresh, dehydrated, frozen and preserved products.

Vegetable Ghee (*hydrogenated vegetable oil*) : Initially this industry made very rapid progress. From only two units, with an installed annual capacity of just 9,000 tons, at the time of Independence, by 1960/61 there were 10 units producing 40,000 tons, and the output subsequently rose to 105,000 tons in the first year of the third plan, 1965/66.

But since then there has been no increase in production until 1969/70, when the output rose to 129,000 tons as against the Third Plan's annual output target of 140,000 tons.

Surgical and Other Instruments : These include medical, surgical and veterinary instruments, and artificial limbs. Of this output, a substantial part is exported. Third Plan targets envisaged an increase of production from the 1964/65 level of Rs. 10 million to Rs. 40 million, and an increase in export earnings from Rs. 2.5 million in 1963/64 to Rs. 25 million in 1969/70.

Sports Goods : Additional capacity for production, worth Rs. 17.5 million, is being created through small, medium and large units. The aim also was to increase export earnings from these goods to Rs. 30 million by 1970, as against Rs. 19.37 million in 1964/65. In 1969/70 foreign exchange earned from the export of sports goods (including toys and games) in fact amounted to Rs. 30.4 million.

Television Receivers : Permission has been granted for the manufacture and assembly of television sets and parts to nine manufacturers in East and West

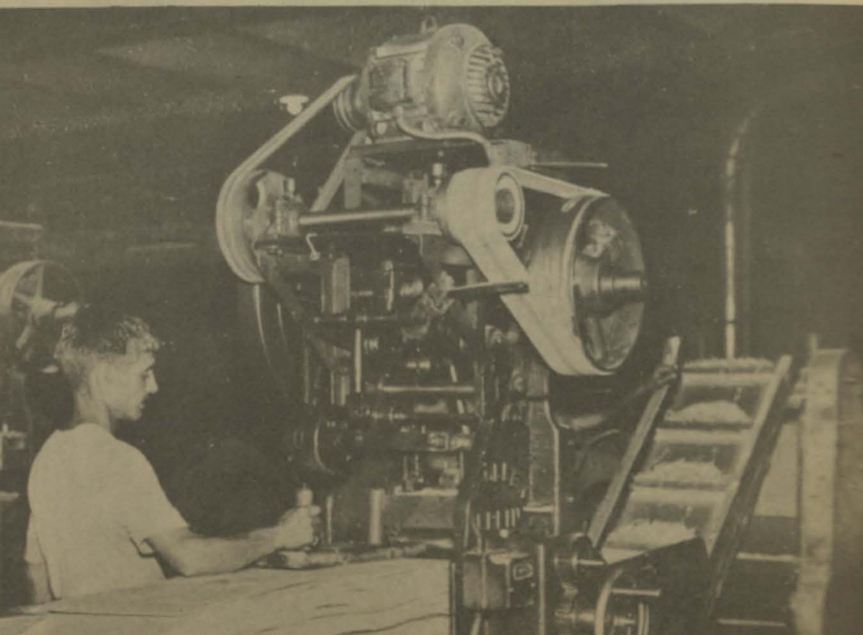
Pakistan. These firms are making 30 per cent of TV components in the initial stage, and this proportion is to be increased to 70 per cent within the next two years.

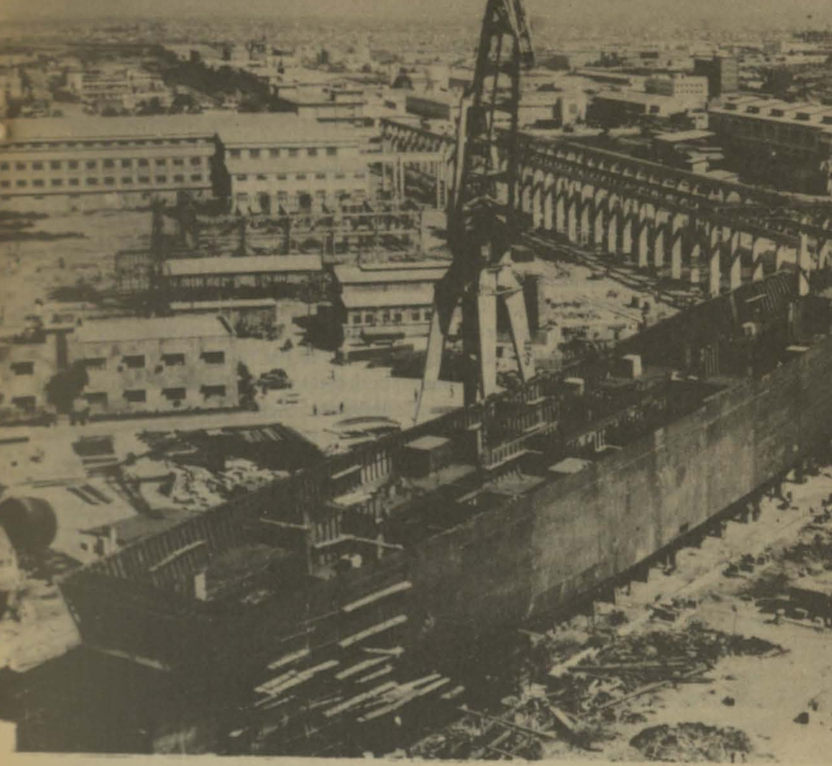
Ship-building : The Karachi Shipyard and Engineering Works (KSEW)—a public limited company managed by the WPIDC—constructs vessels up to 13,000 DWT. It has built the 12,860-ton *Al-Abbas*—one of the largest ever built in any Asian shipyard outside Japan. It is now completing the construction of another ocean-going ship for the National Shipping Corporation, and is receiving orders from abroad—such as, for instance, four fishing boats for Iran.

Other vessels constructed include oil tankers (one of them of 1,100 DWT), 1,200 BHP steam tugs, pilot vessels, buoy-lifting vessels, 1,500 BHP harbour tugs, 250-passenger ferries, self-propelled hopper barges, dumb barges, twin-screw grab hopper dredgers, self-propelled heave-up boats, and self-propelled hazardous cargo barges and launches.

The Shipyard can undertake all types of repairs, including underwater repairs, and specializes in hydraulic steel construction. Among the jobs executed, are 64 gates for the 4,500-foot-long Gudu Barrage, 60 flap gates and hoists for the Little Feni and Noakhali Khal projects, fabrication and erection of radial gates for the Teesta Barrage. It has designed and built cranes of a span of 58 feet, with a lifting capacity of 20 tons. It now plans to produce 30-ton and 40-ton cranes. It also manufactures all types of sugar-mill machinery and a substantial number of steel and galvanized electric transmission and distribution towers. Under licence from Messrs. Ruston & Hornsby Limited, Lincoln (England), the Shipyard manufactures and assembles marine diesel engines of between 50 and 150-BHP.

A match factory in West Pakistan





General view of Karachi Shipyard.

The Shipyard is now entering its second phase of expansion, of which the Part I Scheme—whose revised cost estimate amounts to Rs. 75.1 million—is now at an advanced stage. When completed, the additional facilities of berthing and dry-docking provided by the Scheme will enable the Shipyard to construct 3 ships of over 12,000 DWT at a time, in addition to extending its general steel construction and foundry capacities and providing repair facilities to 300 ships a year.

In East Pakistan, projects for a Dry Dock and Heavy Steel Structure at Chittagong and for a Dry Dock in Narayanganj are under implementation. The former, which is scheduled for completion before the end of 1972, will have provisions for drydocking and under-water repairs of ocean-going vessels (up to 12,000 DWT) as well as for the construction of new vessels (up to 6,000 DWT).

The Dry Dock at Narayanganj, which is to be completed before the end of 1971, will be equipped for repair facilities, new construction and drydocking of inland and coastal vessels of up to 1,400 DWT. The existing shipyard at Khulna is equipped for repairs, reconstruction and other engineering works.

Steel Mills : A beginning was made in the steel industry sector with the establishment of the Chittagong Steel Mill in 1967, based on imported scrap and pig iron, with an annual capacity of 150,000 tons, at a cost of Rs. 335.7 million (205.8 million in foreign exchange). At present it is being expanded to an annual capacity of 250,000 tons.

In West Pakistan, two projects for steel production—one at Karachi and the other at Kalabagh—have been under examination for some years. It has been proposed to base the first on imported iron ore and the second on local ore. The Karachi project was originally envisaged as being set up in the private sector, and the Kalabagh project in the public sector. The Government have, however, decided that both the projects should be sponsored in the public sector. Accordingly, the Pakistan Steel Mills Corporation Limited was set up in July 1968.

The latest feasibility report on the Kalabagh project prepared by Russian experts (1969) states that the manufacture of steel from the Chichali ore would be uneconomical, whereas earlier German tests on 15,000 tons of this ore had suggested that it was suitable for manufacture. In view of the doubt raised, the Government has decided to proceed with the Karachi Project first. Following a report prepared by a British company in 1969, the Pakistan Government accepted the technical assistance offer of the USSR on this project in 1969.

Russian experts submitted their report on schedule, and at the begining of November the Presidential Cabinet approved the report, which proposes a million-ton steel plant based on imported iron ore and coal, to be located at Buleji, near Karachi. When completed, the plant—for which the USSR has also promised economic and technical assistance in its construction—will produce pig iron structures not produced at present, flat products like sheets and plates, coils, and billets required to feed the re-rolling mills.

Engineering and Miscellaneous Industries in East Pakistan : Work on the Machine Tool Factory at Joydevpur (Dacca), with an annual production capacity of 12,155 tons, is in progress. Initial production, with imported CKD units has been started. The Pakistan Diesel Plant at Joydevpur has also started initial production, with a capacity of 3,000 diesel engines required for low-lift irrigation pumps.

An electrical wire and cable manufacturing plant at Chittagong was completed by the middle of 1969 with an annual capacity of 6,000 tons. Russian experts have prepared a project report for a general electric equipment manufacturing plant, with an annual capacity of 10,000 tons, and approval for the implementation of the project has been obtained.

Civil engineering works and installation of machinery for the Chittagong Cement Factory is expected to be completed in 1971. Financial sanction has been approved for the Jamalpur Coal Mines, is under consideration for the Takerghat limestone project, and has been cleared for the Joipurhat Limestone and Cement Works. In addition, feasibility studies are being carried out in respect of nine schemes, the most prominent being: X-Ray Sensitized Film; Sulphadiazine and PVA Emulsion projects; Wooler-

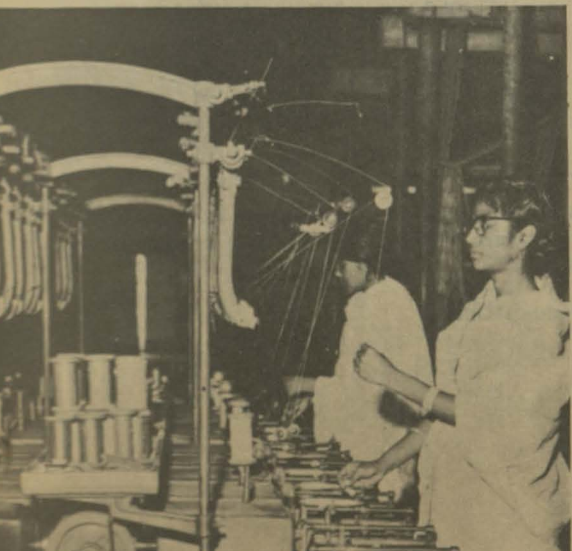
ized Jute (A new jute project), and Polyethylene (Naphtha-based petrochemical).

Landhi Machine Tool Factory : This factory near Karachi, built at a cost of Rs. 97 million, was inauguarted in November 1968, with 665 units of various departments and 3,005 employees. In addition, there are a number of foreign technicians who have been recruited to train Pakistanis on the job. The factory has started producing small to medium-size precision machine tools, including lathes of types not so far produced in Pakistan.

The original estimate of the total cost of this project, set at Rs. 116.2 million, including Rs. 41.2 million in foreign exchange and Rs. 20.1 million as working capital, has been raised to about Rs. 207 million, largely because of several subsequent additions to the production plan and the inclusion of the RCD market for its products. Iran and Turkey have, for instance, expressed their willingness to purchase gear boxes and axles for jeeps produced by this factory. With an annual turnover of Rs. 114 million, it is planned to meet the requirements of the country as well as of Iran and Turkey.

Taxila Industrial Complexes : The Taxila Mechanical Complex, being set up with Chinese collaboration, is now at an advanced stage of completion. Designed to produce equipment for sugar mills, cement factories, road-building machines, low-pressure package-type boilers, and pressure vessels, it involves an estimated outlay of Rs. 151.98 million. The annual output of machinery from this complex will weigh some 14,500 tons, worth about Rs. 61.3 million. A major part of the project has been completed, and partial production has been started.

The Heavy Forge and Foundry project envisages an annual production of 4,000 tons of steel castings, 45,000 tons of steel ingots, 12,000 tons of forged billets, 5,000 tons of iron castings, 4,000 tons of press forgings and 100 tons of copper and aluminium castings. Involving an estimated invest-



Re-reeling at the Rajshahi silk emporium. East Pakistan.

ment of Rs. 143.5 million, with a foreign exchange component of Rs. 79.1 million, the project was approved in principle by the Government in July 1968. Now that it has been linked-up with a second Chinese loan, the Chinese have in February 1970 submitted a fresh feasibility report to WPIDC involving an outlay of Rs. 176.1 million.

The Heavy Electrical Complex, estimated to cost Rs. 143.9 million, has, in principle, been approved by the Government, and Russian credit has been allocated to the project. Construction work is to start after approval of the detailed project report being prepared by Russian experts. With an estimated turnover of Rs. 53 million, it is designed to produce power transformers, air-blast circuit breakers, isolaters, capacitors, switch gears, etc.

TABLE I

Revised Quantum and Value Index of Industrial Production 1959/60-1969/70

Year (July-June)	Manufacturing		Mining Quantum	Industrial Production (Manufacturing and mining) Quantum
	Quantum	Value		
1959/60	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1960/61	118.7	123.4	114.7	118.5
1961/62	138.8	139.0	124.0	138.2
1962/63	159.5	161.9	144.7	158.9
1963/64	181.3	184.2	160.5	180.4
1964/65	201.7	210.6	174.5	200.5
1965/66	214.2	234.4	182.3	212.8
1966/67	237.0	274.4	193.0	235.1
1967/68	255.5	310.8	184.9	252.5
1968/69	282.9	355.7 (P)	208.2	279.7
1969/70	303.8	381.8 (P)	227.4	300.5

Note : The present index is based on the production data of 200 items and gives a coverage of about 94 per cent of production on a countrywide basis. (P) Provisional.

Source : Central Statistical Office.

TABLE II

Production of Selected Manufacturing Industries for the Years 1959/60 to 1969/70

Item	Unit	1959/60	1964/65	1965/66	1966/67	1967/68	1968/69	1969/70 (p)
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Food Manufactures								
Tea	million lbs.	50.8	62.3	61.9	67	63	64	68
White Sugar	000 tons	144	233	456	426	378	466	600
Hydrogenated Vegetable Oil	000 tons	30	95	105	90	96	99	129
Sea Salt	000 tons	206	216	192	360	453	587	509
Tobacco Manufactures								
Cigarettes	million nos.	9,280	19,840	26,450	32,046	34,928	36,526	39,933
Textile Manufactures								
Cotton yarn	million lbs.	403.0	518.0	501.0	531	573	622	725
Cotton cloth	million yds.	606.0	764.0	691.0	739	767	771	786
Silk (art) and Rayon çloth	million sq. yds.	14.5	32.2	35.6	45.5	78	95	85
Woollen worsted yarn	million lbs.	6.4*	5.8*	37.0	(na)	(na)	(na)	(na)
Jute goods	000 tons	265*	289	409	404	513	518	591
Rubber Manufactures								
Tyres and Tubes	million nos.	3.03	6.85	4.66	7	6	7	6
Manufacture of Chemical Fertilizers								
Superphosphate	000 tons	0.8	8.0	7.9	4	16	14	23
Ammonium Sulphate	000 tons	42.2	34.9	38.4	42	46	42	57
Urea	000 tons	—	116	132	140	155	191	297

TABLE II—(*Contd.*)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Manufacture of Other Chemicals								
Sulphuric Acid	000 tons	13.2*	20.9	24.1	22.4	30	29	39
Soda Ash	000 tons	26.6*	33.8	31.6	31.4	57	62	69
Safety Matches								
40—60 sticks	million gross boxes	9.14	11.87	13.6	11.0	12	14.4	14.5
Paper and Paper Board								
(i) Printing	000 tons	16.4	22.5	22.9	15.6	20	20	21
(ii) Writing	000 tons	4.3	9.7	10.9	9.5	10	12	11
(iii) Packing and Other Paper	000 tons	6.4	8.4	8.0	8.9	9	12	11
(iv) Newsprint	000 tons	12.1	38.2	33.8	36.5	39	39	36
Paper Board								
(i) Straw	000 tons	4.5	5.6	4.8	5	4	5	2
(ii) Paper	000 tons	7.8	15.7	14.4	16.6	17	23	25
(iii) Chip	000 tons	1.4	3.1	4.5	4.6	4	7	8
Paints and Varnishes	000 cwt.	na	107	84	94	74	84	77
	000 gallons	na	1,226	1,227	1,195	1,398	1,582	1,542
Cement	million tons	1.03	1.69	1.65	2	2.21	2.6	2.6

(*p*) Provisional

Source : Pakistan Economic Survey, 1969-70 and CSO Statistical Bulletin.

Fuels and Minerals

THE FINANCIAL allocation for this sector rose from Rs. 532 million in the First Plan to Rs. 1,342 in the Third Plan, of which the revised public sector allocation amounted to Rs. 592 million—comprising Rs. 286 million for the development and prospecting of oil and gas, Rs. 96.1 million for coal and peat, Rs. 80 million for gas transmission and distribution, Rs. 70.5 million for geological surveys, Rs. 38.9 million for selected minerals and Rs. 20.5 million for training and research. Against this, the estimated expenditure over the Plan period amounts to Rs. 510 million, or about 86 per cent of the Plan allocation; and the index of mineral production has risen from 174.5 in 1964/65 (Base: 1959/60 = 100) to 208.2 in 1968/69 and an estimated level of 227.4 in 1969/70, showing an increase of over 23 per cent over the Plan period. Even so, production will fall far short of the major Plan targets, mainly owing to the fact that oil prospecting has not yielded expected results, that increased consumption of gas has reduced the demand for coal, and that competition in the intertnational market has sharpened further with regard to chromite and certain other minerals.

Pakistan's inventory of mineral wealth consists of 20 major items, most of which have been recently discovered. And apart from an expanding exploitation of known resources, a continuous search goes on for oil, gas, coal, iron and other important minerals. Specific production targets for different minerals have again been set in the Fourth Plan.

The Natural Resources Division of the Central Government Ministry of Industries and Natural Resources is the policy-making authority in this sector, and the Directorate-General of Geological Survey of Pakistan and the

Oil and Gas Development Corporation (OGDC) function under its supervision. The actual development of fuels and minerals, with the exception of oil, is the responsibility of the Provincial Governments. The Directorates of Mineral Development in the Provinces are concerned with private enterprise, while the Industrial Development Corporations of East and West Pakistan are responsible for the implementation of mineral projects in the public sector. As a matter of policy, the Government has always encouraged private enterprise to participate in mineral development.

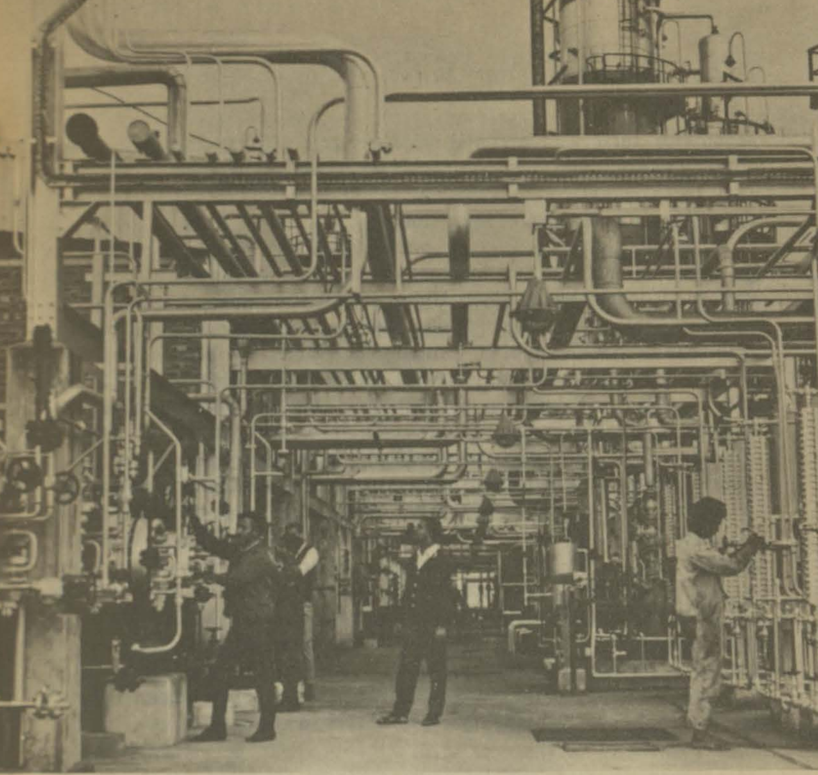
The scale of mineral exploration and exploitation has been determined by the availability of resources, especially technical staff. Starting with five geologists in 1947, the geological survey organization now employs about 93 geologists. Facilities have been provided for courses in geology in the universities and for training abroad. The West Pakistan University of Engineering and Technology, Lahore, has introduced a four-year B.Sc. course in Mining. The Petroleum Institute of Pakistan, sponsored by OGDC, has also made considerable progress since its establishment in July 1963. A mining training institute is being set up at Jamalganj in East Pakistan to train supervisors and technicians for the mining industry in that region.

In November, 1968, the Government constituted a Geological and Mineral Development Co-ordination Board under the Ministry of Industries and Natural Resources with a view to reorganizing and promoting geological and mineral development work with the following terms of reference :

- (i) to plan and co-ordinate the annual programme of various agencies concerned with geological and mineral work;
- (ii) to review the activities of all organizations operating in the field;
- (iii) to ensure proper and adequate utilization of survey work by agencies concerned with exploration and development.

In addition, this Board is tackling the task of streamlining current mining laws with the aim of both providing greater incentives to private prospectors and setting proper standards for mining operations. The latter measures are also expected to raise the level of safety for miners.

Oil : The country's indigenous output of oil amounted to 3.48 million barrels (139 imp. gallons) during the year 1969/70, which met around 12 per cent of the national requirements. Oil exploration in Pakistan has a long history behind it. The first well was drilled in 1866 at Kundal in the Panjab; and the first oilfield was discovered in the Potwar region of West Pakistan in 1915. Subsequently, three more fields were found in the same region: Dhulian (1937), Joya Mair (1944), and Balkassar (1946). The search for oil was intensified after Independence, and the first success came in 1949, with the discovery of an extension of the Balkassar oilfield at Chakwal. The same year oil was made a Central subject and, under the new Petroleum Production Rules, the Government granted prospecting rights over large areas to two foreign-owned companies incorporated in Pakistan—the Pakistan Petroleum



Interior of the Eastern Oil Refinery, Chittagong.

Limited and the Pakistan Oilfileds Limited—with the stipulation that, in the event of commercial production, the Government would receive royalties and share the profits. Pakistan Petroleum Limited discovered the Sui Gasfield in 1952, which ranks among the 10 largest gasfields of the world. More companies joined the search for oil in later years: Pak-Stanvac (now Esso Standard Eastern Inc.) in 1954, Pak-Hunt in 1955, Pak-Shell in 1956, Pak-Sun Oil in 1957, and Pak-Tidewater in 1958. After extensive geological and geophysical surveys, prospecting by these companies led to the discovery of 15 gasfields. A new oil horizon was located in Dhulian in 1960. Towards the end of 1968, Pakistan Oilfields Limited discovered an oil field at Mayal in the Potwar region. So far two wells have been drilled in this field ; and the first of these is now producing oil at the rate of 1,600 barrels per day, while the second is likely to produce about 2,000 barrels per day. Further drilling to test lower horizons is in progress.

The Government in 1969 concluded agreements with two foreign oil companies, namely AMOCO Pakistan Exploration Company of U.S.A. and Wintershall AG from West Germany, to develop further oil prospecting. Both these companies are now busy carrying out extensive geological and

geophysical surveys on land and off-shore areas of West Pakistan. Some other foreign oil companies have also shown interest in concluding agreements with the Government of Pakistan to explore oil prospects on land and off-shore areas in both wings of the country.

In the nine years since its establishment in 1961, the Government-sponsored Oil and Gas Development Corporation, working with equipment and experts loaned by the Soviet Union under an agreement, has carried out extensive geological and geophysical surveys in both wings of the country, drilling 14 deep wells and six information bore holes. Drilling at Tut No. 4, Meyal No. 1 and Kaund No. 1 in West Pakistan, and Semutang No. 2 and Jaldi No. 3 in East Pakistan is still in progress. Early in 1968 the Corporation discovered oil at Tut and natural gas at Sari in West Pakistan. The reserves of the Sari gasfield are estimated at 0.29 million million cubic feet, and other gasfields at Semutang and Hundi are also expected to yield commercial quantities of gas. While reserves of the Tut oilfiled have yet to be evaluated, its Test Well No. 1 was in 1969/70 producing 650 to 800 barrels of crude oil per day.

In May 1969, a Government-sponsored Oil Advisory Panel held its first meeting, thus providing a forum where the collective wisdom of the oil industry of the country could formulate its recommendations for the development of all aspects of the industry.

For the whole of the country, the consumption of petroleum products has increased about tenfold from 403,000 tons in 1948 to 4,087,962 tons in

One of the oil refineries at Karachi.

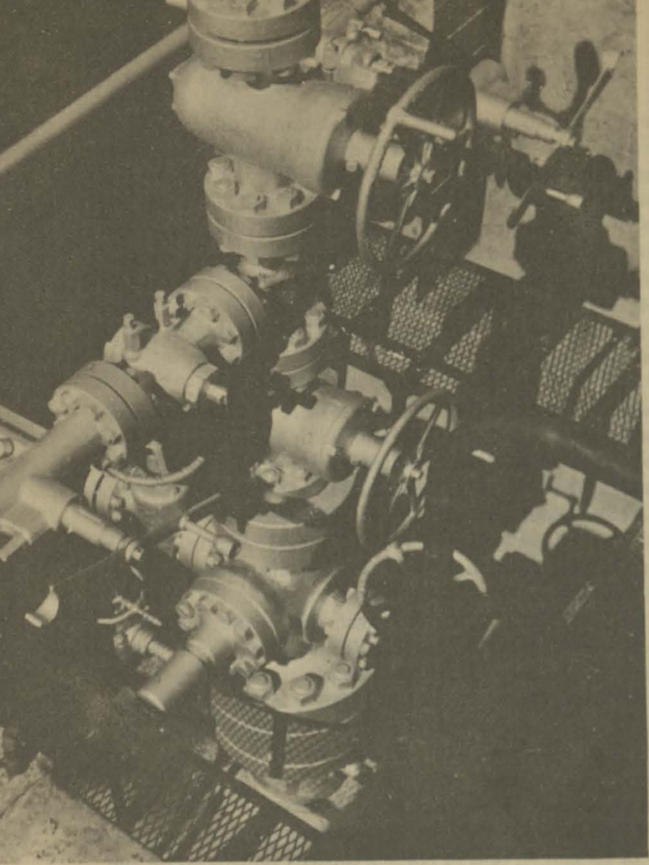


1969. And although the consumption in West Pakistan is still far greater than in East Pakistan, the latter's growth of consumption has been phenomenal—from a mere 70,800 tons in 1948 to 1,197,101 tons in 1969, as against the former's consumption growth from 383,000 tons to 2,890,861 tons, *i.e.* an increase of about 17 times against 7.5 times. On the other hand, the country's output of petroleum products based on indigenous crude production amounted to only 484,616 tons in 1969, meeting no more than 12 per cent of the nation's requirements. Finally, it may also be noted that about 80 per cent of all energy consumption in the country as a whole is supplied through oil and natural gas.

Refineries : Pakistan had a refining capacity of a mere 0.5 million tons towards the end of the fifties. This was the production of the Attock Refinery based on indigenous crude oil, producing a wide variety of products, including fuels, lubricants and asphalt. In 1962, the Pakistan Refinery Limited, which is a fuel refinery based on imported crude oil, was established with an annual refining capacity of 1.5 million tons. The total annual refining capacity of Pakistan thus increased to 2.0 million tons. In 1964 this refining capacity rose to 2.6 million tons per annum as a result of expansion at the Pakistan Refinery. Then, in 1966, annual capacity was again increased by 0.5 million tons through the establishment of the National Refinery Ltd., also based on imported crude oil. The National Refinery is a complex refinery manufacturing bitumen and lube base oils as well as fuels. The capacity of the Pakistan Refinery was then further increased to 2.5 million tons per annum. The Eastern Refinery at Chittagong, with a capacity of 1.5 million tons per annum, also based on imported crude oil, has been designed as a fuel refinery, and went into production in May 1968. Thus the total refining capacity of the country in 1968 reached 5 million tons per annum. If the expansion of 1.5 million tons in refining capacity sanctioned for the National Refinery Ltd., and scheduled for completion by 1973 is also taken into account, the annual capacity in 1974 will be 6.5 million tons, as against an anticipated demand of around 7 million tons by 1975, at the indicated rate of growth in demand. (Also see chapter on Industry.)

Natural Gas : In the process of searching for oil, some very big deposits of natural gas, with a high methane content, have been discovered in both wings of the country. In all, there are 16 gasfields in Pakistan, seven in the East and nine in the West. Their total reserves have been estimated at over 23.6 million million cubic feet. Out of these reserves, only about 3 per cent had been utilized by the end of 1969, which leaves a total of about 23 million million cubic feet at the disposal of the country.

The production of gas in Pakistan was started in 1955 when the annual output amounted to 1,375 million cubic feet, which has since risen to 55,000 million cubic feet in 1965 and to 117,273 million cubic feet in 1969. The natural gas is used mainly as fuel for power production and as feed-stock for the production of chemical fertilizers. Thus, although 93 per cent of the consumers in 1970—63,400 out of a total of 67,000 (against 19,900 in 1965)



Sylhet gas pipeline terminal.

—were domestic consumers, they used only 2 per cent of the output, 98 per cent of it being utilized by the 7 per cent consisting of industrial and commercial consumers.

For the Sui gasfield in West Pakistan, going into operation in 1955, a pipeline was first laid up to Karachi to meet the requirements for gas in the southern region. The pipeline has since been extended to Sukkur and Hyderabad and right up to Hattar in the north. Work for the further extension of transmission lines to Peshawar has been started. Sui gas is used as raw material for the production of chemical fertilizer equivalent to 250,000 tons of ammonium sulphate annually at the Multan Fertilizer Factory. Mari Gas is used in the Esso Fertilizer Factory at Dharki, which has a capacity of 173,000 tons per annum. The Sylhet gasfield feeds the Fenchuganj Fertilizer Factory, which has an annual production capacity of 117,000 tons of urea. The reserves of the Chatak gasfield have been made available to

the Chatak Cement Factory. The Titas gasfield supplies gas to the Ghorasal Fertilizer Factory, which has a capacity of 600 tons of ammonia fertilizer per day, as well as to all other industrial consumers in the Dacca region. The Habibganj gasfield supplies gas to the EPWAPDA Shahji Bazar Power Station. The biggest gasfield in East Pakistan has been discovered at Bakharabad, in the District of Comilla, towards the end of 1969. Proposals for supplying gas from this field to the Chittagong area are under consideration.

Coal : One of the most important and oldest industries of Pakistan is coal-mining. Two of nine coalfields in the country, namely Bogra and Sylhet, have been recently discovered. The West Pakistan coal, generally found in lenticular beds, is of a lignitic to sub-bituminous type, containing a high percentage of ash and sulphur, and generally liable to spontaneous combustion. Its heating values range from 7,000 British thermal units (Btu) to 12,400 Btu per pound. The thickness of seams ranges from a few inches to a few feet. The Bogra coal of East Pakistan (in the Jaipurhat-Jamalganj-Paharpur region of Bogra and Rajshahi) is of a good quality bituminous type, rated at 11,000 Btu per pound. Though located at a depth of 2,000 to 4,000 feet, there are several seams which range from about 5 feet to 150 feet in thickness,

Cutting coal in a mine 3,000 feet deep in the Makerwal Collieries.



and reserves are estimated at 700 million tons. Total reserves are estimated at over 1,070 million tons.

At an output of about 1.3 million tons in 1968/69, the production of coal falls far short of national requirements, necessitating imports of the order of Rs. 45 million. About 80 per cent of the output is consumed by the brick-kiln industry as run of the mine, without treatment. Other major consumers of coal are the railways, industries, and Defence Services, for whom it is specially treated.

The West Pakistan Industrial Development Corporation has constructed a mile-long haulage tunnel at Makerwal, and has undertaken large-scale development work at the Sor Range and Khost-Sharigh mines. Other fields are being exploited mainly by private companies.

Peat : Surveys have revealed the existence of peat in many areas of East Pakistan at a depth-range of 5 to 10 feet; and its reserves are estimated at about 13 million tons, the average thickness of the seam being 6 feet. Utilization plans have been worked out and are under study for implementation.

Iron : Iron ore resources are estimated at over 500 million tons, of which about 480 million tons are of a sedimentary type, 8.7 million tons metamorphic and 15.4 million tons laterite. The iron content of the ore is estimated at over 30 per cent. The largest reserves, over 300 million tons, have been located in the Kalabagh-Makerwal— region, where the ore contains carbonate, silicate, and oxide, with an average of 30-35 per cent iron and a 15-25 per cent content of alumina, silica, phosphorus and sulphur. While the Langrial ore—about 27 million tons—has an average iron content of 35-47 per cent, the remotely placed Chitral deposits of 3.7 million tons are of the magnetite type, with a high iron content of 60 per cent. Laterite reserves of about 15 million tons have been located near Quetta, with an average iron content of 29 per cent. A small deposit of good quality ore has recently been located by the Geological Survey of Pakistan in the Chilghazi area near Dalbandin in the Chagai District.

Salt : Large deposits of excellent rock salt are located in West Pakistan, while favourable conditions exist on the sea coast in both wings of the country for the extraction of salt by solar evaporation. Salt mining is a Government monoply, and private companies are only allowed to extract sea water salt. Total production of rock salt for 1968/69 stood at 365,000 tons.

There are six salt mines and quarries in West Pakistan, including Khewra, which is the second largest salt mine of the world (with reserves of 83 million tons). Some mines are said to date back to ancient times, before the invasion of Alexander of Macedon in 327 B.C. The WPIDC took over the mines in 1962 and effected some major improvements, including electrification, mechanical haulage, construction of roads, workshops, and housing for miners. Schemes are in hand to employ modern techniques in place of the present costly methods of tunnelling, boring and blasting.



Drilling for salt in the Khewra mines, West Pakistan.

Brine : A brine reserve of about 25 million barrels, which contains salts of sodium, calcium, magnesium and potassium, has been found at Dhariala in the Jhelum District. A scheme to produce fertilizer from the potassium in the brine is being implemented.

Chromite : Located in the Zhob, Kharan and Chagai Districts, and in the Waziristan and Malakand Agencies, reserves of chromite ore are estimated at over 3 million tons. Most of the chromite mined—25,000 tons in 1968/69—is exported.

Gypsum : Extensive deposits of gypsum, with an alumina content of 31 to 36 per cent, have been found in several regions of West Pakistan, such as the tribal areas of the North-West Frontier Province, the Salt Range in the Sargodha and Rawalpindi Divisions, the Quetta Division and the hilly areas of Dera Ghazi Khan and Dera Ismail Khan Districts. It is used in the manufacture of cement and fertilizers and in cottage industries. A substantial part of the output is also exported.

Limestone : West Pakistan possesses rich deposits of limestone, with reserves estimated as inexhaustible. Recently, subsurface reserves of over 190 million

tons of limestone have also been discovered in the Sylhet and Bogra Districts of East Pakistan, which are fit to be used not only in cement manufacture, but also in the soda ash, suger and steel industries. Limestone output in 1968/69 amounted to over 2.2 million tons.

Marble : Large deposits of marble, in different varieties and colours, are located in the Peshawar and Quetta Divisions, and in certain hilly regions of Dadu District. where it is mostly found in the form of crystalline calcitic limestone. Quarrying and processing is being modernized, and some onyx marble is exported to Italy and Japan.

China Clay : Reserves of 10 feet thick beds of China clay, estimated at 613,000 million tons, have been discovered in East Pakistan; and the output of washed china clay has increased from 1,400 tons in 1965/66 to 3,400 tons in 1968/69. White clay is also found in West Pakistan in the Shah Dheri areas of Swat State, and near Nagar Parkar in the Thar Parkar District, where it has an alumina content of 58 per cent. Recoverable resources of the Swat and Nagar clays are estimated at about 398,000 tons.

Glass Sand : Deposits of this have been discovered in West Pakistan at the Palan Range of Dadu District and in parts of the Peshawar, Sargodha and D. I. Khan Divisions, and in East Pakistan at various localities in the Chittagong Division and in Sylhet.

Barytes and Celestite : Significant deposits of barytes and celestite have been found in West Pakistan. The largest baryte deposits are situated near Khuzdar in the Kalat District, where reserves are estimated at 1.3 million tons. Barytes are also found in abundance at various localities in the Hazara District, and one of these deposits has an estimated reserve of more than 25,000 tons.

Reserves of celestite found near Thana Bula Khan in the Dadu District are estimated at about 214,000 tons.

Radioactive Minerals : Deposits of radioactive minerals have been located near Cox's Bazar in the Chittagong District of East Pakistan, and in the Siwalik rocks of the Dera Ghazi Khan District of West Pakistan. Preliminary investigations by the Pakistan Geological Survey and the Pakistan Atomic Energy Commission in both these localities have been completed, and a detailed evaluation of the findings is under way. First reactions are optimistic—particularly of utilizing these sources to meet the nuclear fuel requirements of the atomic reactors to be established at Karachi and Rooppur. (See chapter on Water and Power).

TABLE I

Gasfields, Reserves and Utilization

Location Gasfields (with year of discovery)	Estimated Reserves	Utilization up to December 1969
	(Million million cubic feet)	
East Pakistan :		
Sylhet (1955)	0.43	0.045
Chatak (1959)	0.02	0.006
Rashidpur (1960)	1.06	—
Kailash Tila (1962)	0.60	—
Titas (1962)	2.25	—
Habibganj (1963)	1.28	0.004
Bakharabad (1969)	1.97	0.006
Total	7.61	J.061
West Pakistan :		
Sui (1953)	6.30	0.573
Zin (1954)	0.10	—
Uch (1955)	2.50	—
Khairpur (1957)	1.00	—
Mari (1957)	3.90	0.005
Dhulian (1957)	1.70	0.086*
Mazarani (1958)	0.03	—
Khand Kot (1959)	0.20	—
Sari (1968)	0.29	—
Total	16.02	0.664
GRAND TOTAL	23.63	0.725

*Production in association with oil.
Source : Ministry of Industries and Natural Resources.

Table II

Coalfields and Reserves

Location of coalfield	Area (sq. miles)	Estimated Reserves (million tons)
Salt Range	100	75
Makerwal	30	19
Sor Range	20	25
Khost-Sharigh Range	80	40
Mach	16	15
Lakhra	80	175
Meting-Jhimpir	30	28
Bogra	not estimated	700
Sylhet	—	3
	TOTAL	1,080

Source : Ministry of Industries and Natural Resources.

TABLE IV

Production of Minerals

Mineral	Unit	1959/60	1960/61	1961/62	1962/63	1963/64	1964/65	1965/66	1966/67	1967/68	1968/69	1969/70 July-Dec.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Antimony	(ton)	165	—	65	56	31	265	61	914	758	119	13
2. Aragonite	,,	2,813	6,815	,079	3,112(*a*)	10,369	9,171	10,575	9,663	9,585	16,692	8.559
3. Celestite	,,	1,340	555	356	377	203	432	239	524	480	580	389
4. Chromite	(000 tons)	15	23	23	22	8	15	20	38	23	26	13
5. Coal	,,	775	855	927	1,139	1,229	237	1,186	1,323	1,200	1,300	654
6. Dolomite	(ton)	151	195	408	546	728	544	84	547	8.563	5,058	466
7. Fireclay	(000 tons)	16	15	15	13	33	18	19	20	19	19	10
8. Fuller's earth	,,	—	5	9	10	11	10	10	18	14	7	5
9. Gypsum	,,	91	94	103	238	172	184	115	122	60	234	52
10. Iron ore	(ton)	222	9,225	—	1,700	4,027	11,789	12,139	—	45	425	—
11. Limestone	(000 tons)	1,013	1,104	1,200	1,186	1,789	2,005	1,882	2,432	1,695	2,232	1,228
12. Lead ore	(ton)	20	13	70	58	24	15	—	—	—	—	—
13. Magnesite	,,	670	320	—	820	589	622	655	774	1,231	1,304	1,018
14. Manganese	,,	169	152	925	807	610	950	—	814	667	210	—
15. Rock salt	(000 tons)	168	210	191	220	212	217	289	231	273	365	144
16. Silica sand	,,	28	18	15	19	25	27	16	78	86	148	23
17. Soapstone	(ton)	2,088	1,353	684	530	822	2,429	1,060	2,870	2,081	2,931	749
18. Barytes	,,	869	250	1,663	5,316	6,451	12,298	8,795	6,228	8,606	11,183	994
19. Crude oil	(Million I.G.)	86	97	107	122	130	132	136	128	128	137	69
20. Natural Gas	(Million cubic feet)	25,750	31,985	38,790	45,410	54,872	62,896	74,036	79,980	84,936	100,071	60,613

Source : Central Statistical Office.

—Nil or insignificant.

a From 1962/63 onward figures of aragonic include those of ordinary marble also.

TABLE III

Energy Consumption in Pakistan and Sectoral Percentages of Total Consumption

(100 Metric Tons of Coal Equivalent.)

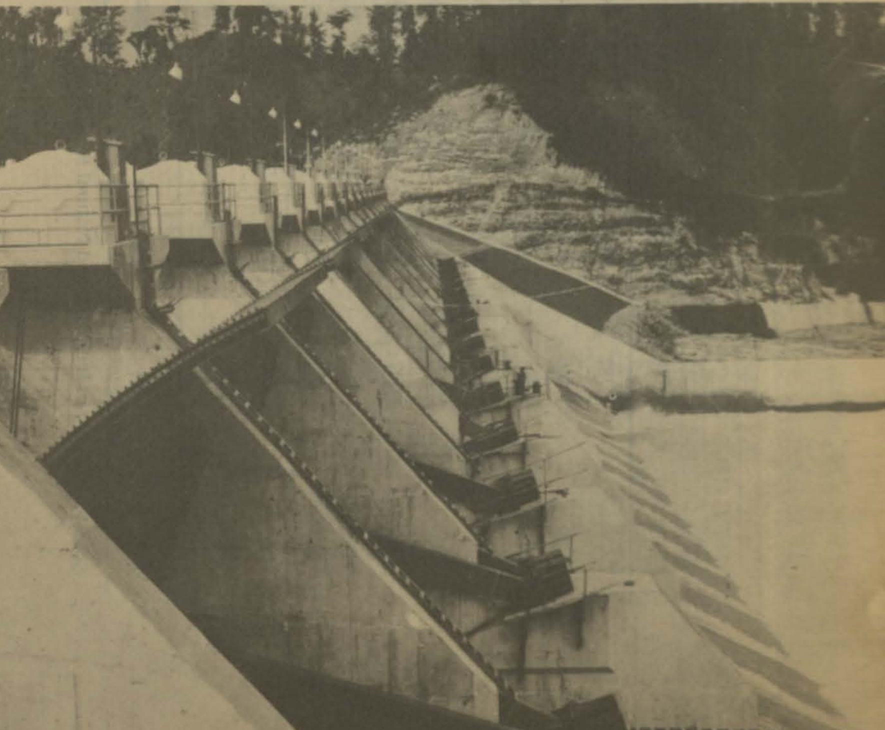
Year	Coal		Oil		Gas		Hydropower		Total
	Tons	Per cent	Tons	Per cent	Tons	Per cent	Tons	Per cent	
1958	1,787	35.1	2,836	55.6	433	8.5	41	0.8	5,097
1959	1.446	28.4	3,064	60.3	526	10.4	47	0.9	5,083
1960	2,093	33.7	3,304	53.1	771	12.4	50	0.8	6,218
1961	2,016	30.7	3,527	53.8	943	14.4	70	1.1	6,556
1962	2,050	29.1	3,727	52.8	1,167	16.5	110	1.6	7,054
1963	2,097	26.8	4,133	52.8	1,467	18.7	133	1.7	7,830
1964	2,229	26.0	4,447	51.7	1,751	20.4	163	1.9	8,590
1965	2,100	22.8	4,937	53.6	1,999	21.7	179	1.9	9,215
1966	1,893	19.7	5,233	54.6	2,297	23.9	173	1.8	9,596
1967	1,926	18.6	5,713	55.2	2,517	24.4	189	1.8	10,345
1968	na	na	na	na	2,748	26.6	na	na	10,330
1969	na	na	na	na	3,459	34.0	na	na	10,174

Source : Ministry of Industries and Natural Resources.



Mangla Dam , West Pakistan.

Kaptaī Dam, East Pakistan.



Water and Power

WITH AN INVESTMENT of about Rs. 6,348 million, amounting to about 79 per cent of the Third Plan allocation, the following major achievements have been recorded in the Water and Power sector during 1965-70, showing particularly remarkable progress in the distribution of power: 3.72 million acres of new land has been brought under irrigation against the Plan target of 5.74 million acres (1 million acres in East and 2.72 million acres in West Pakistan); 13.65 million acres of cultivated land have been improved through irrigation, drainage or flood control compared with the Plan objective of 20.33 million acres (1 million acres in East and 12.65 million acres in West Pakistan); installed power generating capacity has been nearly doubled from 1,300 mw in 1964/65 to 2,590 mw in 1969/70 against the Plan target of 3,030 mw (300 mw to 670 mw in East and 1,000 mw to 1,920 mw in West Pakistan), the total length of transmission and distribution lines has been more than doubled from 16,800 route miles in 1964/65 to 44,300 route miles in 1969/70, exceeding the Plan objective of 33,500 route miles by 32 per cent (2,300 to 8,500 route miles in East and 14,500 to 25,000 route miles in West Pakistan). Separate estimates of public expenditures on water and power amount to Rs. 2,838.04 million on the first and Rs. 3,509.67 million on the second, showing a respective Plan allocation fulfilment of 68 and 91 per cent.

Water and Power are no less than the life-blood of agriculture and industry, and they are interlinked because water can be harnessed as a source of power. Hydroelectric projects usually combine the dual purposes of supplying irrigation water and electricity to the commissioned area. But while the problem of power is simply that of expansion, providing more

electricity for industrial, agricultural and domestic purposes, the problem of water is more complex. In East Pakistan, for instance, the problem in the summer monsoon months of the year is to control the excess water of heavy rains and swollen rivers; in the arid winter months, to make enough water available to support an additional crop. Yet another aspect of the problem of water is represented by salinity, alkalinity, and water-logging—all three of which corrode the land. These are grave problems in West Pakistan, and also affect some parts of East Pakistan, salinity in particular being a problem in coastal regions subject to high tides.

This sector of the economy was thus given top priority immediately after Independence and between 1947 and 1955, Rs. 989.6 million had been spent on water and power development in three regions—the Humid Region, the Indus Basin, and the Coastal Tributaries and Desert Stream Regions—for the completion of which the total cost estimate amounted to Rs. 3,015.1 million. In the First Five-Year Plan, the public sector allocation amounted to over 28 per cent of the total proposed public expenditure and nearly equalled the combined totals for agriculture and industry. In the Second Plan, this proportion was maintained; and in the Third Plan, although it had decreased slightly to 26 per cent, the absolute amount, at Rs. 8,047.3 million, was double the allocation of Rs. 4,140 million in the Second Plan.

A Water and Power Development Authority was created for West Pakistan in 1958 and for East Pakistan in 1959. These WAPDAs prepare and execute plans for augmenting and harnessing the water and power resources in Each Province. Master Plans have been established for flood control in East Pakistan and for irrigation, salinity control and land reclamation in West Pakistan. Power development in both zones of the country is also being looked after by these agencies.

In 1964, the Government established an Irrigation, Drainage and Flood Control Research Council to organize, co-ordinate and promote research in the fields of hydraulics, irrigation, drainage, reclamation, tube-wells, and flood control. Current work of the Council includes the following major research schemes: field efficiency in irrigation in East Pakistan; basic studies on hydraulic problems; studies on soil, water and plant relationship for salinity and water-logging control; ground-water exploitation studies; investigations on drainage, with particular reference to tile and open drains. (Also see chapter on Scientific Research).

Between 1947 and 1955, about 778,000 acres of new land were brought under irrigation; in the period 1955-60, 1.3 million acres; and in the period 1960-65, about 2.05 million acres (0.22 million acres in East Pakistan and 1.83 million acres in West Pakistan). In the Second Plan period of 1960-65, another 8.55 million acres (2.25 million acres in East Pakistan and 6.30 million acres in West Pakistan) were also improved through better irrigation, drainage and flood control, as against some 2.6 million acres thus improved in the First Plan period and 423,000 acres during 1947-55 in East Pakistan. Total new land brought under irrigation between 1947 and 1970 (see above for Third Plan achievements) amounts to 7.85 million acres and old land improved through irrigation and other water management projects to 25.22

million acres.

EAST PAKISTAN : Despite heavy rains—an average of 76 inches in a year for the whole zone—East Pakistan is deficient in water during some months of the year. With a dense population, increasing fast, and with per capita land-holding extremely low, the area needs to grow more than one crop in the year to be able to meet its food requirements. This can be done only with the help of adequate irrigation projects. Many rivers traversing the plains of East Pakistan offer ample scope for this, but there are also several problems to be overcome.

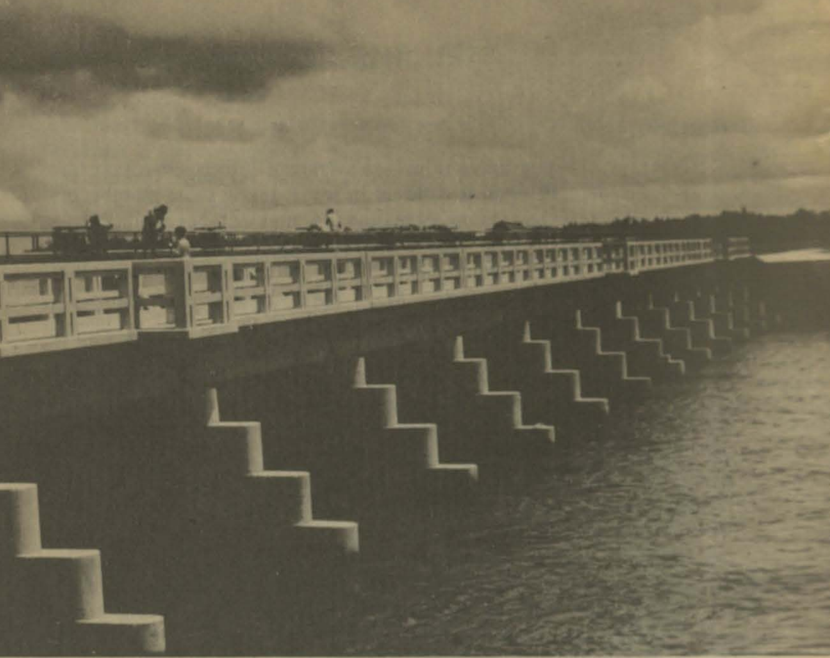
The traditional method of irrigation was confined to lifting water from wells and streams. The first organized surface-water irrigation project was started in 1954, and in 1962, East Pakistan inaugurated its first hydroelectric project, Karnafuli at Kaptai. Surface-water and underground water irrigation was also developed through the application of power pumps. While the Ganges-Kobadak project in the Kushtia sector has been nearly completed, various other water management projects have been completed. In 1969/70, there were 39 major schemes and a number of small schemes under various stages of execution. Of the major projects, 15 related to investigations and surveys; eight to multipurpose development, involving flood control, drainage and irrigation; four purely to irrigation; five to flood protection. The remaining seven projects were of a miscellaneous nature, covering the management and financing of mechanical equipment, dredger organization, development of hydraulic research, and irrigation extension schemes. More details on some major projects are given below.

Ganges-Kobadak Project : This is East Pakistan's foremost multipurpose, flood control and irrigation project, which aims at pumping water from the River Ganges to irrigate a total area of 2.58 million acres. Started in 1954, the project was hampered by diverse causes, but has gained momentum in the last few years. The first phase, now virtually complete, provides for the irrigation of 120,000 acres, over which the canal system is already in operation. Revised estimates place the cost of this phase of the project at Rs. 509.4 million. The work on the project has been divided into three separate units integrated by the construction of a barrage over the Ganges near the Hardinge Bridge, which will provide its own irrigation facilities as well as flood control.

(a) *Kushtia Unit* : The total command area is 488,000 acres, net irrigable area 350,000 acres, and expected increase in food-grain yield 360,000 tons. In addition to supplying water for irrigation and protecting the area from floods, the project will provide drainage facilities and afford communication advantages with navigable channels and all-weather roads.

(b) *Jessore Unit* : This will serve the same purposes as the Kushtia unit, commanding a total area of 1,667,000 acres, of which 1,141,000 acres will be thoroughly irrigated.

(c) *Khulna Unit* : The main purpose of the project is to irrigate and drain the command areas to enable them to produce two crops in the year. However, the project is based on existing supplies of the Ganges,



Spillway of the Teesta Barrage in East Pakistan.

and its scope will be seriously affected by any withdrawals by the upper riparian at Farakka (see section on India in chapter on Foreign Relations).

Teesta Diversion Dam : The earthen dam on the Buri Teesta was completed in 1968, together with a spillway for impounding headwater for canals to irrigate 33,000 acres.

Ground-Water Development : The north-eastern districts of Rangpur, Dinajpur, Bogra and Rajshahi consist of fairly high uplands which are not affected by floods, but also will not take to running canals. They often need a supplementary water supply, sometimes even during the monsoon season. Their soil is fertile and could produce two to three crops a year if water were provided during the dry winter months. A scheme for the utilization of underground water through tube-wells, and of perennial streams, through the use of low-lift pumps, was therefore put into operation ; and this has yielded very good initial results, raising crop production several times over. The project covers a total area of 186,800 acres, for which, with the completion of the project, irrigation is supplied through 362 tube-wells with power transmission line facilities, 689 low-lift pumps at 95 pump stations, and 60 electrically driven diesel engine low-lift pumps.

Flood Control : Recurring floods and tidal bores have had a crippling effect on the economy of East Pakistan. The coastal districts of Chittagong, Khulna, Noakhali and Bakerganj are plagued by tidal inflows from the sea which

directly paralyse an area of about 6,000 square miles. (See section on Cyclone Disaster of November 1970 in chapter on Social Welfare). Monsoon floods in the three major rivers, Padma (Ganges), Brahmaputra and Meghna, affect vast areas in other districts. It has been estimated that, on average, 1,070 million acre-feet of water flows in through these rivers from cachments outside East Pakistan and an additional 100 million acre-feet of run-off water collects from rainfall inside the zone. The total quantity of water is equivalent to a depth of 34 feet over the whole Province. This floods an area of some 10 million acres each year !

The problem has been studied by successive teams of experts during the past 15 years. A Flood Commission was set up for East Pakistan in 1955, along with a Flood Control Board and Flood Control Organization. In 1956/57, a United Nations Mission surveyed the entire range of water and power resources of East Pakistan and assessed their development prospects.

In 1964, the East Pakistan WAPDA prepared a master plan for irrigation, drainage and flood protection covering the whole of the Eastern Zone, which was then studied by World Bank officials as well as the Provincial and Central Governments for inclusion in the Perspective and the Five-Year Plans. After detailed discussions with the two Governments, the World Bank assigned a few working groups to carry out practical studies in East Pakistan over a period of several months, and on the basis of these, in February 1968, produced an action programme. After this programme had been further refined, it was submitted to the Government in June the same year. An Action Programme for Agriculture and Water Development in East Pakistan, with special emphasis on flood control, drawn up after further review (including consultation with the East Pakistan Flood Commission) in July 1970, has formed the basis for negotiations on construction loans for projects under the programme. In September 1970, a four-member World Bank Mission, led by Mr. Robert Sadove, Director of the Special Projects Department in the World Bank, visited East Pakistan in connection with this Action Programme. Indicating hopes of tangible progress in the near future, Mr. Sadove also said that the World Bank would be preparing an integrated rural development programme (see chapter on the subject) along with the flood control programme. Further work in the latter field will be carried forward through consultation between the Flood Control Board (reconstituted as a high-powered body in November 1970) and the Flood Control Group of the World Bank, which includes international experts in the fields of hydrology, sedimentation, river-training works, and tidal hydraulics. Projects included in the Action Programme broadly aim at setting up embankments along the sea coast and river banks in areas subject to tidal waves and floods; establishing drainage sluices and irrigation facilities through gravity divisions; and installing pumping outfits for the protected area. Natural waterways are to be used for flood drainage as well as for irrigation. Channel improvements and cut-offs which will complement embankment protection and dredging to combat channel changes due to alluvial soil accumulation are also envisaged. Completion of on-going schemes is expected to provide the Government with valuable hydro-

logical data on the Province and requisite feasibility studies in relation to a number of specific projects. Furthermore, the Flood Control Board has also approved schemes involving a total cost of Rs. 839 million for a comprehensive hydrological survey—to collect basic data during the next five years on floods as well as water deficit, river bank erosion and climatological conditions—and for a study of the Meghna Valley.

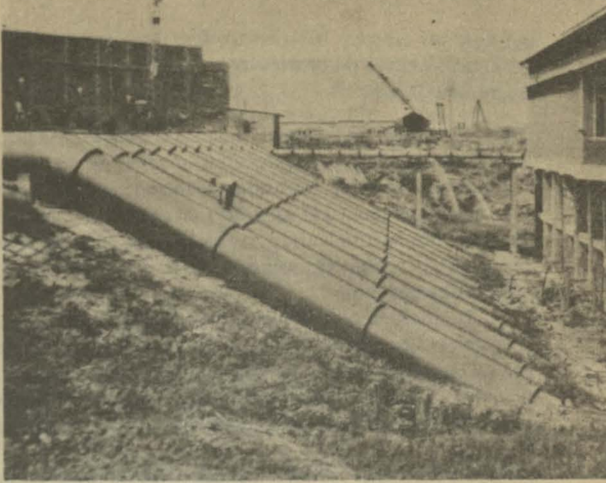
The revised Third Plan estimates increased the allocation for flood control measures from Rs. 460 million to Rs. 780 million. The increase was mainly intended for the upward revision of the Coastal Embankment Project, which envisages the reclamation of 3.4 million acres of land from tidal inundation and periodical flooding through the construction of about 3,000 miles of embankment with some 900 drainage sluices. The project is divided into two phases. The first, estimated to cost Rs. 1,145 million, will provide 2,293 miles of embankment and 730 sluices to protect 2 million acres of land, i.e. about 20 per cent of the area subject to floods. About 1,830 miles of embankment were completed to protect 1.56 million acres of land by December 1969, and actual expenditure up to January 1970 amounted to Rs. 835 million.

The Fourth Plan provides a rupee cover of Rs. 1,500 million for the flood-control programme in the form of a Central Government allocation which is not to be recovered from the East Pakistan WAPDA or Provincial Government. Main construction objectives are to build 1,865 miles of embankments and 1,675 miles of drainage channels in order to protect an area of about 3.2 million acres. Possibilities of increasing this allocation, if necessary, have also been envisaged through intersectional adjustments. In August and October 1970, the Central Flood Control Board meeting in Dacca approved a flood control programme for the first year of the Fourth Plan, and it was agreed to release Rs. 25 million per month from the Central Government to the East Pakistan WAPDA to enable them to finance this programme, which among other projects, includes flood protection schemes for Dacca and Chittagong, at an estimated cost of Rs. 200 million and Rs. 150 million respectively.

Brahmaputra Embankment : This project provides protection to 672,700 acres of land from floods in the districts of Pabna, Rangpur and Bogra, with 135 miles of river embankment running from Kaunia along the north-western bank of the Jamuna up to the confluence of the Harsagar River near Sirajganj and Bera. By December 1968, all the 135 miles of embankment had been completed at a cost of Rs. 69.7 million.

Dacca-Narayanganj-Demra Project : The project, located in the area southeast of Dacca, provides irrigation, flood protection and pump drainage to about 12,740 acres. It was completed in 1968 at a total cost of Rs. 22.9 million.

Tippera-Chittagong Project : This multipurpose project covers an area of 1,750 square miles in the districts of Noakhali, Comilla and Chittagong.



Pump house of the Ganges-Kobadak Project, East Pakistan.

traversed by the rivers Meghna and Dakatia, which overflow during the monsoon season. The area has the sea on one side and is prone to be overrun by the tides. The total cost of the project is estimated at Rs. 172.6 million.

The first phase of the project, known as the Chandpur Scheme, has made some progress during the Third Plan. The scheme seeks to provide flood protection to a gross area of 140,000 acres and irrigation to 26,320 acres in the first stage. A sum of Rs. 61.6 million had been spent by January 1970 in the Chandpur sector on building 32 miles of embankment and setting up pumping stations which will provide both irrigation and drainage for flood water.

EPADC Irrigation Projects : The East Pakistan Agricultural Development Corporation has been developing its own programme of local irrigation and water supply to farmers. Starting with a modest scheme of installing low-lift pumps to utilize the water of streams and lakes, the EPADC began its work in 1964 by setting up no more than 40 pumps. After comparatively slow progress in the next three years, raising the number of pumps to only 514, the installation of pumps was speeded up, so that by the end of 1968, 6,500 were in operation—and for 1970, the target is 19,000 low-lift pumps to irrigate an area of 750,000 acres.

Finally, the EPADC has launched a Thana Irrigation Plan, in collaboration with the Works Programme, which provides for the installation of power pumps wherever surface water facilities are available. Charges for such facilities have been kept well within the means of the farmer, at Rs. 14

per acre per season. Related to this, the Corporation also plans to install 1,000 tube-wells in the districts of Comilla, Mymensingh, Rangpur, Dinajpur, Bogra and Dacca.

Other Projects : Under other, smaller schemes, the Old Dakatia and Little Feni Drainage Project—which aims at relieving drainage congestion, water-logging and salt-water intrusion in the districts of Comilla and Noakhali—over an area of about 242 sq. miles—has been completed. The comprehensive Drainage Scheme for Faridpur, the flood prevention scheme in Comilla, and improvement of the Gazaria-Ichhamati River have also been brought to a successful conclusion.

In addition to these projects, a number of small, local projects are in progress at different places. The Works Programme, operated by the Basic Democracies, has provided an impetus to these local works, aiming at increased food production through improved irrigation, flood regulation, drainage, embankments and small dams. (See chapter on this Programme.)

Surveys and Studies : Simultaneously with the work on specific projects, systematic surveys and studies have been carried out to provide data for further planning. These include hydrological investigations, feasibility studies and socio-economic surveys of on-going projects.

WEST PAKISTAN : Out of a total gross area of 199 million acres, West Pakistan, is estimated to have 79 million acres of cultivable land which can be used for farming, provided an adequate supply of water is arranged. Out of this, less than half is covered by the existing irrigation systems, and in fact no more than 31 million acres, of a total of about 48 million acres of cultivated land, receives irrigation water from canals and other sources.

At the time of the First Five-Year Plan, assuming an average of 3 feet of water per acre required for each crop, the additional requirement of water—for expanding cultivation to maintain the existing level of the consumption of food crops—was estimated at 7.5 million to 9 million acre-feet annually. The problem is constantly under review as cultivation extends and requirements grow. Traditional methods of irrigation, such as wells, tanks and *karezes* are clearly unequal to the task, and canal irrigation on a very large scale offers the only practical solution.

During the First and Second Plans, a number of important irrigation projects were taken in hand, including such gigantic works as the Ghulam Muhammad Barrage Warsak Dam, Guddu Barrage, Kurram Garhi Project, Taunsa Barrage, Rawal Dam and Tanda Dam.

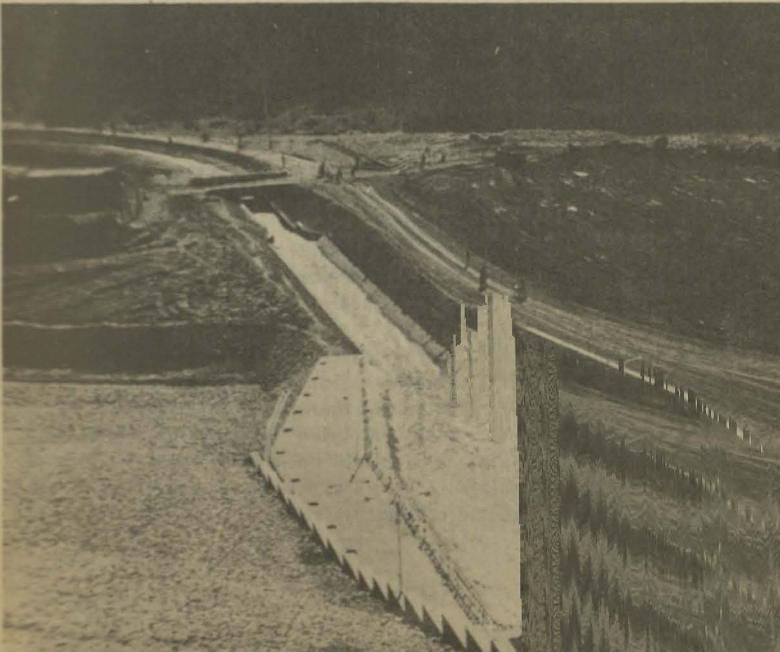
The Third Plan stipulated a target of 21.59 million acres of land to be provided with irrigation and reclamation facilities, of which 3.98 million acres would be entirely new land brought under the plough for the first time. During the five years of the Third Plan, steady progress was made towards this goal, and irrigation facilities have been provided to 2.72 million acres for the first time, while 12.65 million acres have been improved through better irrigation, provision of surface and sub-surface drainage and flood regulation. By

1970, the irrigation system consisted of some 38,000 miles of canals and a series of barrages and canal headworks to control the diversion of river flows into canals; about 6,000 large tube-wells operating in the public sector ; and about 79,000 small tube-wells operating in the private sector. Total annual water availability in 1969/70 amounted to 90 million acre-feet from canals and 21 million acre-feet from tube-wells, as against corresponding figures of 85 million and 7 million acre-feet in 1964/65.

The development of the water and power resources of West Pakistan received a significant boost in 1958 with the setting up of the Water and Power Development Authority. During the Third Plan period, the Authority has worked on nine water development projects, in addition to the Indus Basin Works (see below), and has completed five of these. The most important project completed by the Authority, in 1967, was the Mangla Dam, which is dealt with separately in the section on the Indus Basin Replacement Works. The other five water projects completed are the Tanda Dam, the Chablat Khas Irrigation Scheme, the Gudu Barrage, the Rawal Dam, and a pilot project of windmills. A brief account of progress made on various major water development schemes is given below :

Tanda Dam : Built across the Kohat Toi in the Kohat District, the Tanda Dam, 114 feet high with a top length of 2,340 feet, has been completed at a cost of Rs. 66.8 million. Water was successfully diverted to the dam on

A canal of the Tanda Dam.



June 30, 1966, and it was inaugurated in November 1967. The project provides a gross reservoir capacity of 78,400 acre-feet and a live storage capacity of 64,800 acre-feet to irrigate an area of 32,100 acres or 64,450 cropped acres.

Gomal Dam : Preliminary work is proceeding on the 500-foot-high Gomal Dam multipurpose project in the tribal area of South Waziristan on the Gomal River at Khajuri Katch. It will create a storage of 2.5 million acre-feet for a total cultivable command area of 133,000 acres. The project will also help to control floods and provide hydroelectric power, rising from 90 mw in the first instance to an ultimate 135 mw. The revised estimate of the cost of the project is Rs. 383.6 million with a foreign exchange component of Rs. 100 million. However, as a final decision on costs has not yet been taken, construction work has slowed down almost to a halt. Meanwhile, detailed investigations have been nearly completed, and a diesel power station has been set up to meet power requirements of the project.

Khanpur Dam : The project will consist of a 164-foot-high, 1,580-foot-long earth dam across the river Haro in the Hazara District, which will have a storage capacity 91,000 acre-feet and an irrigation potential of 152,000 acres. It will serve the districts of Hazara, Campbellpur and Rawalpindi, of which the cultivable commanded area is 90,000 acres. The revised estimate of cost is Rs. 178 million. Preliminary works, comprising camp buildings and their electrification, water supply and approach roads, have been completed. Work on the diversion of the river is nearly finished, and excavation of the spillway is going ahead. However, the project has been re-examined with a view to widening the scope of irrigation, as more than the originally estimated supply of water is now expected to be available, and other work has been suspended until final approval of the revised project.

Karachi Irrigation Project : The project, which has been revised to enlarge its scope, envisages the construction of a 151-foot-high, earth-filled dam across the Hub River near Karachi. The dam will have a span of 26,264 feet, and will have a command area of 131,000 acres. With a live storage capacity of 757,000 acre-feet, the project's system is designed to irrigate 84,000 crop-acres annually, of which 20,000 acres will be double cropped. The cost is estimated at Rs. 190.8 million. In addition to preliminary works, over 40 per cent of the dam work, comprising the main dam, the saddle embankment and the spillway, has also been completed.

Mangi Pumping Station : Aiming at augmenting Quetta's Water Supply, this scheme comprises a reservoir formed by a dam at Mangi on the Khost River. Water will be pumped from the reservoir through a 15.5-mile-long rising main up to Kach, and from there carried through a 30.5-mile-long channel up to Samalai. From here, it would be pumped up another 2 miles to a reservoir from which the city and its suburbs will be supplied by gravity flow. The Project is to be completed under the Fourth Plan.

The Indus Basin Project : Consequential to the Indus Water Treaty of 1960, the project is being administered by WAPDA, as agent to the Government of Pakistan. It includes two dams, Mangla on the Jhelum and Tarbela on the Indus, with inter-river link canals about 700 miles in length; 46 river-diversion structures, including one gated siphon; remodelling of three existing link canals; two existing headworks and several canal systems served by the new connections.

Mangla Dam : Construction of the Mangla Dam was completed during 1967/68, almost a year ahead of schedule. The reservoir was successfully filled in two phases up to the maximum conservation level and two turbo-alternator sets began providing 200,000 kw of power to the national electric grid. The completed works of the Indus Basin Project, namely, Mangla Dam, Trimmu-Sadhnai-Mailsi, Mailsi-Bhawal and Qadirabad-Balloki link canals, Sidhnai Barrage, Qadirabad Barrage and Mailsi Siphon and Remodelling Works, were inaugurated in November 1967.

The Mangla Dam is a multipurpose project designed to conserve and control flood waters of the Jhelum for the purpose of replacement, as envisaged in the Indus Basin Treaty. It is a key project of the entire settlement. The gross storable capacity of the reservoir, which is equal in area to the island of Malta, is 5.55 million acre-feet. It will also generate 1 million kw of energy which may in time be raised to 3 million kw.

The main dam is a rolled earth-filled embankment with a crest length of approximately 11,000 feet. Its height above the river is 380 feet, and it is considered to be one of the largest earth-filled dams in the world.

The treaty provided for a live storage of 4.75 million acre-feet with the Dam running two miles in length across the river at Mangla. To contain the reservoir, it was necessary to build a second dam, Sukiam, 3.5 miles long and with a maximum height of 80 feet, and a third dam, Jaridam, 3 miles long and 34 feet in height, to close a gap in the rim about 16 miles east of Mangla. Thus, out of a total length of 250 miles of the reservoir link, 8.5 miles are formed by dams.

The life of the Mangla Dam reservoir has been estimated at about 125 years.

The Mangla Dam and seven other projects have been completed at a total cost of Rs. 5,000 million contributed by the World Bank, United States, United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, New Zealand and West Germany. India is paying Rs. 800 million over a period of 10 years by way of compensation. The cost of the Mangla Dam alone amounts to Rs. 3,350 million.

Tarbela Dam: The Tarbela Dam project envisages the construction of a storage reservoir on the Indus River about 32 miles above Attock. The reservoir to be created by the 485-foot-high and 9,000-foot-long Dam will extend nearly 50 miles up-stream, with a gross capacity of 11.1 million acre-feet, of which initially 9.3 million acre-feet will be available for irrigation and power development. This is almost twice as much as the capacity of the Mangla reservoir.

Tarbela Dam will also provide hydroelectric power, the ultimate potential of which will be 2.1 million kw, produced through 12 generating units with a capacity of 175,000 kilowatts each. The power units will be phased as demand increases. Initially, two power units will be installed by 1975.

The project involves a total expenditure of Rs. 10,403.7 million, of which some $500 million will be required in foreign exchange. Of this total, the estimated cost of the water sector of the project is about Rs. 4,536 million, against which an allocation of Rs. 3,000 million has been made outside the Fourth Plan budget. Between $300 to $320 million are available from the present Indus Basin Fund and $50 million have been granted by the International Development Association. Since the Tarbela Dam has been found technically feasible and economically productive by the World Bank teams which visited Pakistan in November 1966 and April 1967, it has also been decided that the financing of the project would be undertaken by the Consortium countries. It is expected that they will provide about $ 100 million in foreign exchange, which will, however, be needed at a later stage—not earlier than 1972.

The construction of Tarbela Dam started in 1968. All the preliminary work was completed by the end of June 1968, including a bridge over the Indus

Construction work at Tarbela Dam site.



River, a railway track and a road from Lawrencepur to the Dam site. According to the programme, the Dam reservoir will be completed by May 1975, and the remaining works will be completed by 1977. A French-Italian consortium was entrusted with the work in May 1968.

Land Reclamation : The original allocation for this sub-sector in the Third Plan was Rs. 1,561 million, which was later reduced to Rs. 1,133 million, the reduction mainly affecting West Pakistan WAPDA's public tube-wells programme. This did not, however, reduce the total water yield of the programme, as electrification of the wells was speeded up to compensate for the decrease in the number of wells. As against 12,000 tube-wells originally contemplated, the Plan targets were reduced to 8,818 tube-wells and electrification of 7,855 tube-wells. Against this target, 5,007 tube-wells have been set up and 3,531 electrified under WAPDA's Salinity Control and Reclamation Projects (SCARP).

Alongside of these projects, the Irrigation Department has completed a number of small, local drainage schemes, remodelled existing drains, and constructed new major drains under the Sukhrawa Drainage System, Pandoki Drainage System, Jaranwala Drainage System, Satiana-Samundari Drainage System and Chakbandi Drainage System. About 871 miles of main drains have been excavated under the Kotri Barrage Surface Drainage Scheme by the Agricultural Development Corporation.

Chaj-Doab Scheme : This scheme (SCARP II) aims at reclaiming 2.27 million acres of saline land between the Chenab and Jhelum rivers in the districts of Jhang, Sargodha and Gujrat, through the installation of 2,500 tube-wells, the excavation of 450 miles of new drainage channels, and the remodelling of 300 miles of existing drains. The total estimated cost of the entire project is Rs. 508.2 million. The installation of 514 tube-wells has been completed (163 under the Lalion Scheme, 138 under the Mona Scheme and 213 under the Khadir Scheme), and the Irrigation Department has started operating these tube-wells. In the Upper Jhelum area, all the projected 884 tube-wells have been installed, and in 1969 were handed over to the Irrigation Department for operation. For the Lower Jhelum area, a contract for the construction of 850 tube-wells was signed in August 1968. Drilling on tube-wells in the Kot Memon Area has been started, and 294 tube-wells have been drilled, developed and tested.

Lower Thal: Under this Scheme (SCARP III), 1,637 tube-wells are to be installed and 150 miles of drainage channels constructed in the Rangpur and Muzaffargarh canal zone, covering a total area of 1.3 million acres. The estimated cost of the project, which comprises three units —542 tube-wells in the Alipur Unit, 523 tube-wells in the Kot Adu Unit, and 572 tube-wells in the Rangpur Unit—is Rs. 224.4 million, with a foreign exchange component of Rs. 121.8 million. Construction of all tube-wells in the Alipur Unit has been completed, and 122 of these had been electrified by the end of 1969. For the Kot Adu Unit, all the tube-wells have been drilled and equipment

has been installed on most of them. All the Rangpur Unit tube-wells had been drilled and tested, and electrification of them was nearing completion in 1970.

Upper Rechna : Spread over 1.33 million acres in Sheikhupura, Sialkot and Gujranwala districts, the project (SCARP IV) consists of 1,942 tube-wells to serve an area of 1.3 million acres, and to be financed with US and Yugoslav aid. The project was split into three units: Upper Chenab (1,062 tube-wells), Mangtanwala (311 tube-wells), and Muridke (626 tube-wells). By the end of 1968, the Mangtanwala Unit had been completed; in the Muridke Unit, all the tube-wells have been drilled, and most had been electrified by 1970. The Upper Chenab Unit was finally dropped in favour of alternative irrigation through private sector tube-wells (see below).

Khairpur Project : This provided for the installation of 540 tube-wells, five pumping stations, and 350 miles of drainage channels to reclaim a command area of 318,000 acres in the District of Khairpur at an estimated cost of Rs. 152.9 million. By December 1969, all the tube-wells had been drilled and electrified, and 521 put into operation under the Land and Water Development Board. Earthwork construction of structures on drains has been completed, and work on the pumping stations is in progress.

Larkana -Shikarpur Scheme : The first phase of this scheme provides for the excavation of 126.5 miles of new drains covering an area of 578,000 acres in the districts of Larkana, Shikarpur and Sukkur on the west bank of the Indus. The total cost of the project is estimated at Rs. 26.6 million with a foreign exchange component of Rs. 930,000. By the beginning of 1970 the project had been virtually completed.

New SCARP Scheme—Rohri North : Included in the 1968/69 WAPDA programme, this scheme aims at the installation of 1,196 tube-wells in the Khairpur and Nawabshah districts to cover 790,000 acres, at an estimated cost of Rs. 180.1 million. By the end of 1969, 122 tube-wells had been drilled and 119 developed and tested.

Private Sector : The reduced allocation for public sector tube-well projects in the Third Plan was partly balanced by the rapid growth of the private sector in this field. The Plan stipulated this sector's contribution to tube-well irrigation at about 27 per cent of the additional water supply. A total of 34,000 tube-wells were in operation at the outset of the Plan. During the Plan period, 45,000 private tube-wells were added to this number, well exceeding the Plan target of 40,000.

Besides these projects, considerable water development work is being carried out by the Irrigation Departments of the Provincial Governments in West Pakistan. Similarly, the West Pakistan Agricultural Development Corporation is playing a significant role in this field.

Master Plan and Other Surveys : Advances in the field of surveys and in-

vestigations have led to satisfactory progress in the development of a realistic Master Plan for West Pakistan. On the basis of voluminous consultants' reports on various problems with which the development of water, agriculture and power is faced, the World Bank has evolved a Master Plan for development in these fields over a period of 20 years. Considered to be one of the most comprehensive documents of its kind, this Master Plan is being followed up by further surveys and investigations, including a number of feasibility studies which have been finalized. Among specific studies carried out or undertaken are : feasibility studies on a number of projects in the Quetta and Kalat region and in the North-West Frontier Province; detailed basin-wise studies for the Kurram, the Haro, the Soan, and the Siran rivers, investigations on schemes for the development of both surface and subsurface water in the rain-fed areas of West Pakistan, and reorganization of the Irrigation Research Institute, Lahore.

Power

East Pakistan : In view of the flat topography of East Pakistan, emphasis has to be laid on developing its thermal generating capacity. At the end of the Second Five-Year Plan, the total installed generating capacity in East Pakistan amounted to 300 mw (200 mw in public utilities and 100 mw in captive industrial capacity). This has been raised to 670 by the end of the Third Plan, as against the target of 830 mw. Installed capacity by sources of generation is given in the Table below.

East Pakistan Installed Capacity by Sources of Generation

	1965 Actual	Target 1970	Achievement 1970	Target 1975
Public Utilities :				
Hydel	80.0	126.0	80.0	130.0
Steam (plus Gas turbines)	61.0	525.0	371.0	661.0
Diesel	59.0	59.0	99.0	90.0
Nuclear	—	70.0	—	200.0
Sub-total	200.0	780.0	550.0	1,081.0
Industrial Establishments	100.0	50.0	120.0	100.0
TOTAL	300.0	830.0	670.0	1,181.0

Major projects nearing completion towards the end of the Third Plan period included the following three power stations with a total projected generating capacity of 280 mw.

Ashuganj Thermal Power Station : The project has been designed to provide a 120 mw Power Station at Ashuganj, in two units of 60 mw each, situated seven miles away from the Titas gasfield. By December 1969, Rs. 145.7 million of the estimated cost of Rs. 214.2 million had been spent on the project, and work had progressed to the point that the Power Station was scheduled to begin operations by the end of the Plan period in 1970.

Ghorasal Thermal Power Station : Designed to generate 110 mw in two units of 55 mw each, this project has also made considerable progress, and its first unit is due for completion before the end of 1971 and the second by the middle of 1972. By December 1969, Rs. 125 million had been spent on the project against its estimated cost of Rs. 205 million.

Siddhirganj Thermal Plant Extension : Envisaging expansion of the existing Power Station at Siddhirganj through the installation of an additional generating unit with a capacity of 50 mw, this project was also scheduled for completion before the end of June 1970. Against the revised cost estimate of Rs. 93 million for the Project, actual expenditure up to October 1969 amounted to Rs. 62 million.

Other on-going projects, whose speedy completion is provided for in the Fourth Plan, include the 50 mw Karnafuli Hydroelectric Unit No. 3, the 60 mw Khulna Thermal Power Station, the 60 mw Chittagong Thermal Power Station and the 11.2 mw Saidpur Thermal Power Station.

Rooppur Nuclear Power Station : Now scheduled to be in operation by 1974/75, this nuclear project, estimated to cost Rs. 350 million and designed to generate 200 mw, is to be situated at Rooppur in North Bengal to cater to the planned industrial development of this region of East Pakistan. While the project is under way, the Fourth Plan has also made provision for setting up a central generating plant, with four 15 mw gas turbine generating units, in this region as an interim measure to meet its urgent power requirements.

Transmission and Distribution : Despite the fact that the total route length of power transmission and distribution lines has been increased from 2,300 miles in 1964/65 to 6,300 miles in 1969/70 (including the extension of electricity to a total of 250 villages), fulfilling 74 per cent of the target of 8,500 miles, this has not proved sufficient to make optimal use of the total new generating capacity, which has increased at a comparatively smaller percentage rate.

The number of power consumers has increased from 140,000 in 1964/65 to an estimated 220,000 in 1969/70, with per capita generation of power increasing from 13.2 kwh to 18.5 kwh.

However, in general the supply position during the Third Plan period remained unsatisfactory, not only due to delays in the execution of major generation schemes, but also because of occasional failures of the Karnafuli Hydroelectric Power Station, breakdown of the Karnafuli-Sidhirganj interconnector as a result of unprecedented cyclones, and above all the inadequacy of distribution facilities. Installation of gas turbines with an aggregate of

141 mw was undertaken on a crash basis during the currency of the Plan, and this improved the supply position somewhat in the reigon east of the River Brahmaputra.

WEST PAKISTAN : During the Third Plan period the installed power capacity has been nearly doubled from 1,000 mw in 1964/65 to 1,920 mw in 1969/70, with a corresponding increase in total power generation from 3,610 million kilowatt hours to 6,700 million kilowatt hours, as against the Plan target of 2,162.7 mw and 7,400 million kilowatt hours. Installed capacity by sources of generation is given in the Table below.

West Pakistan Installed Capacity by Source of Generation

	1965	Target 1970	Achievement 1970	Target 1975
Public Utilities :				
Hydel	269.7	669.7	667.8	1,417.8
Steam (plus Gas turbines)	487.3	1,190.0	1,028.7	1,437.7
Diesel	58.0	28.0	46.9	20.0
Nuclear	—	125.0	—	125.0
Sub-Total	815.0	2,012.7	1,743.4	3,000.5
Captive Industrial Capacity	185.0	150.0	180.0	150.0
Total	1,000.0	2,162.7	1,923.4	3,150.5

Major projects completed in the Plan period, and contributing an additional installed capacity of 647 mw to the total increase of 920 mw, included : the 400 mw Units 1-4 of the Mangla Hydel Station, the 130 mw Lyallpur Thermal Station, the 23 mw Hyderabad Extension, the 25 mw Sukkur Thermal Extension, and gas turbines at Shahdara and Kotri generating 84 mw and 12 mw respectively.

On-going and new generation schemes, of which the first three are scheduled for completion before the middle of 1972, and the others between then and 1975, include: Mangla Unit 5 (100 mw), Mangla Unit 6 (100 mw), Guddu Units 1 and 2 (220 mw), Guddu Unit 3 (200 mw), Mangla Unit 7 (100 mw), Mangla Unit 8 (100 mw), Tarbela Units 1 and 2 (350 mw), and Quetta Units 3 and 4 (15 mw).

Karachi Nuclear Power Station (*KANUP*) : Originally scheduled for completion in 1970, construction of the Rs. 320 million nuclear power project at Paradise Point, Karachi, with an installed capacity of 132 mw, is now making



Switchyard of the Sukkur Power Station, West Pakistan.

rapid progress after unavoidable delays. Its civil works have been nearly completed and the reactor containment building has been found satisfactory after pressure tests. Engineering and maintenance personnel have been recruited and trained for the operation of the plant, of which they have already started to commission various systems and sets of equipment.

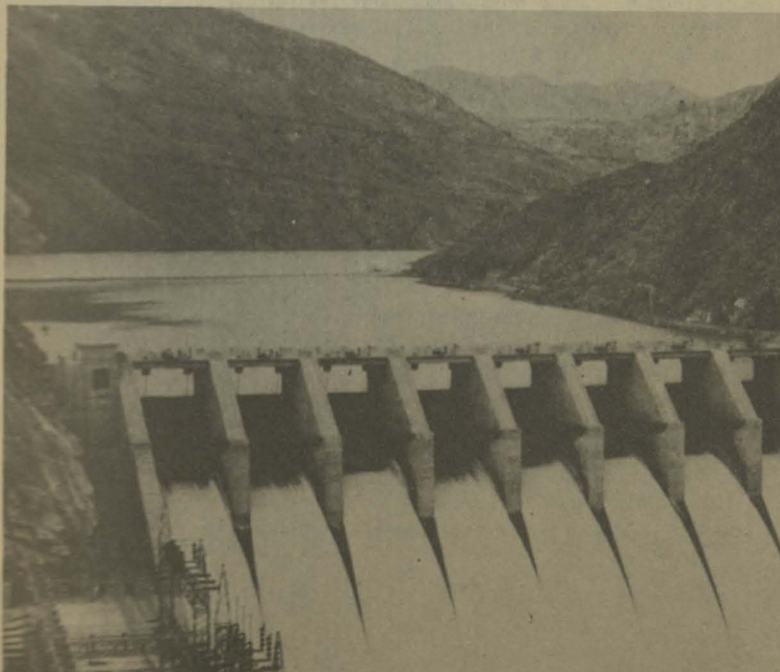
In addition to this project, the Fourth Plan proposes to initiate work on the establishment of a fuel reprocessing plant and to determine the feasibility of a dual-purpose nuclear reactor on the Makran coast.

Transmission and Distribution : As in East Pakistan, while the total route length of transmission and distribution lines has been increased substantially from 13,500 miles in 1964/65 to 38,000 miles (including the extension of electricity to a total of 2,500 villages) in 1969/70, exceeding the Plan target of 25,000 miles by over 50 per cent, the supply position has not improved in step with this and the increase in installed capacity.

Thus, inspite of the fact that in the five Plan years the number of consumers has increased by over 76 per cent from 840,000 into 1964/65

1,480,000 in 1969/70, and correspondingly per capita power generation has increased from 71 kwh to 115 kwh, complaints about poor quality of service not only persisted but increased, and for the first time deficits appeared in the revenue accounts of WAPDA. This has in part been due to load shedding (up to 900,000 kwh per day in July 1968) and abnormally high system losses (up to 32 per cent in 1968) in transmission and distribution. This in turn is considered to be the result of a combination of factors, including inefficiency of operation as well as failures of power stations, delays in the completion of new power stations and transmission facilities, inadequacies of the distribution system, in particular the shortage of grid stations, the length of feeder circuits exceeding permissible limits, and under-capacity of distribution mains and transformers. The Fourth Plan has laid special stress on removing these defects and improving as well as expanding the transmission and distribution system.

Warsak Dam with Switchyard, West Pakistan.



Transport and Communications

WHILE THE public sector allocation to transport and communications in the Third Plan was, apart from that for family planning, the only one to be increased in its revision—from Rs. 6,400 million to Rs. 6,711 million—and the total public and private allocation of Rs. 10,611 million doubled the allocation for transport and communications in the Second Plan, the implementation of these financial objectives and their physical implications has met with only limited success. In the first four years of the Plan, the public sector financial outlay amounted to only Rs. 3,372 million, and even with the full realization of an estimated investment of Rs. 940.11 million for the fifth year, there will be a shortfall of at least 36 per cent. In terms of physical achievements, shortcomings have been most pronounced in the sub-sectors of ports and shipping, telegraphs and telephones, roads and railways generally, and of inland water transport in East Pakistan. On the other hand, the programme of the Transport Corporation and Shipping Corporation in East Pakistan has been fully implemented, and encouraging advances have been made in the implementation of the programmes for civil aviation, the Pakistan Western Railways and West Pakistan roads.

An effective transport and communications system is a necessary condition for rapid economic growth anywhere, but it assumes an added significance in Pakistan, with its two zones separated by over 1,000 miles. Linking up the growth of domestic markets and maintaining the flow of materials and skills, this infrastructure also supports increased social activity and is essential for national integration. Until the Third Plan, the main emphasis in this sector had been on reorientation, rehabilitation and modernization

of the transport system inherited at Independence, rather than on its geographical expansion. Major steps in the latter direction were envisaged in the Third Plan, special emphasis being laid on the improvement of railways, civil aviation and inland water transport, the construction of new ports and the expansion of telecommunications. At present, the transport and communications services employ about 700,000 persons and contribute over 6.6 per cent of the gross national product.

Transport

While all means of transport are being used and developed, inland water transport is mainly restricted to East Pakistan, where large areas are water-bound. Air travel and transport has made rapid progress all over the country, and plays a special role in helping to link East and West Pakistan.

Railways : The areas that comprise Pakistan have had a railway system for over 100 years. The Pakistan Western Railway (PWR), as it is called today, began functioning in the middle of 1861, and the Pakistan Eastern Railway (PER) followed a year and a half later. At the time of Independence, the Western Zone of Pakistan had 5,316 route-miles (including 318

A railway bridge over the river Karnafuli, Chittagong.



miles of a metre-gauge railway situated in Sind and previously managed by the Jodhpur Railway of India). East Pakistan had a route mileage of 1,618 at the time of Independence. The current route miles of PWR and PER are 5,322 and 1,781, respectively. The total railway mileage in Pakistan works out to 2.55 miles per 100 square miles.

Organization : Since July 1962 up to July 1970, the Railways have been administered by the two Provincial Governments. There is a Railway Board in each wing of the country, whose Chairman is the Chief Executive of the Railway and is responsible for taking all administrative and executive decisions and for advising the Government on railway policy. For smoother functioning, the Railways are split into Divisions—two in East Pakistan and six in West Pakistan—and on July 1, 1970, on the dissolution of One Unit, the PWR was placed under the direct control of the President of Pakistan on behalf of the four new Provinces.

Finance : The Third Plan allocated Rs. 915 million for the PER and Rs. 1,500 million for the PWR against which estimated expenditure amounts to Rs. 528 million and Rs. 1,150 million, respectively. The Railway Budgets for 1968/69 (revised) and for 1969/70 are as follows :

Railway Budgets

(Million rupees)

	Revenue		*Expenditure*		*Percentage Ratio*	
	1968/69	1969/70	1968/69	1969-70	1968/69	1969/70
PER	281.1	328.8	254.9	270.2	90.4	82.2
PWR	663.1	762.3	588.2	672.0	88.6	88.2

Increments in expenditure are mainly due, in the case of the PER, to increased costs of materials and working expenses, including the cost of employee benefits sanctioned in March 1969, and in the case of the PWR, to a rise in ordinary working expenses and appropriation for the Depreciation Reserve Fund.

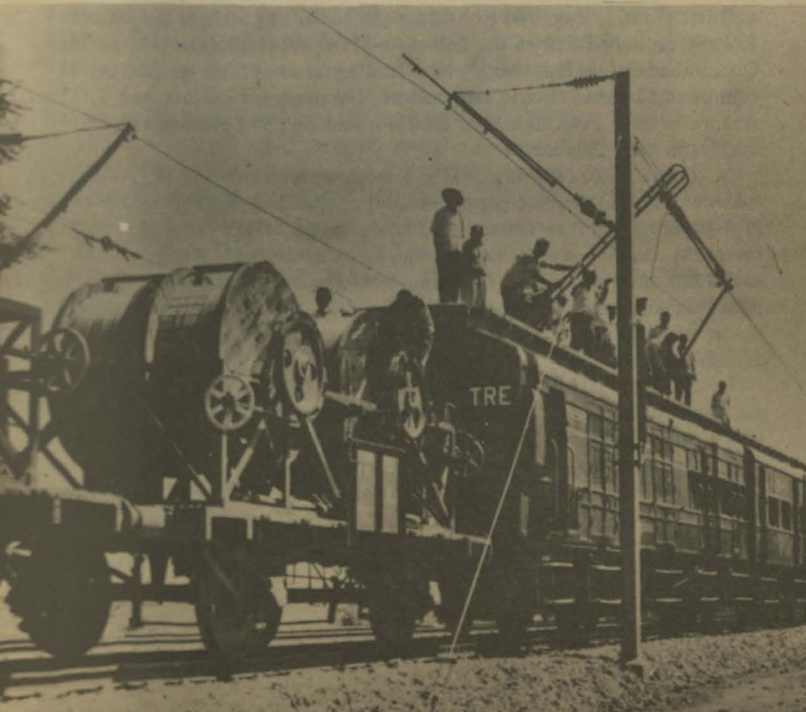
Presenting the PER budget for 1969/70 on June 30, 1969, the Martial Law Administrator observed that some increase in passenger fares and an increase of 10 per cent in freight and parcel rates was unavoidable in view of the "rising cost of operation" The budget which shows a gross surplus of Rs. 58.6 million, includes a provision for the payment of Rs. 42.3 million on Central/Provincial Government investments, leaving a surplus of Rs. 16.3 million, out of which Rs. 400,000 were reserved for house-building advances to employees, leaving a net surplus of Rs. 15.9 million. Out of this

surplus, Rs. 510,000 were to be contributed towards development expenditure, and the balance of Rs. 10.8 million was to be transferred to the Railway Reserve Fund.

The PWR budget for 1969/70, showing a gross surplus of Rs. 90.3 million, envisaged a 15 per cent increase in passenger fares and a 10 per cent increase in freight rates, yielding an additional income of Rs. 72.5 million. The increases in passenger and freight rates were a sequel to the *ad hoc* relief granted to low-salaried employees, the procurement of stores on a cash-cum-bonus basis, a rise in debt service charges, and the repayment of Central/Provincial Government investments.

A project for the modernization of accounting and financial and statistical procedures has been initiated towards ensuring prompt and regular availability of financial and statistical information for improved financial control and more efficient operations. These measures are also intended to pave the way towards the computerization of these procedures. Considerable progress was made in the implementation of this project in 1969/70, by the end of which year about 74 per cent of the regular employees of the Railways received their salaries under the modernized payroll procedures; modernized revenue accounting was introduced on all stations of the PWR; and new material accounting systems were adopted in the stores and depots attached to various Railway workshops.

A recently introduced electric train between Lahore and Khanewal, West Pakistan.



Development: Pakistan inherited its railway system in a very poor condition. The First Plan suggested the following measures for the rehabilitation of the Railways: new track for the main lines and some important branch lines and purchase of diesel electric locomotives, passenger coaches, and wagons. The Second Plan provided, in addition to the above, for the construction of Railway lines, modernization of signalling techniques, strengthening of bridges and additions to rolling stock. The Third Plan aimed at increasing the present capacity by developing electric traction, expanding dieselization, constructing new lines and remodelling yards and terminals. About 920 miles (315 miles in East and 605 miles in West Pakistan) of rail renewals and 1,236 miles (497 miles in East and 739 miles in West Pakistan) of sleeper renewals were completed by the middle of 1970.

Other important developments during the Plan period include the completion of the electrification of the main line from Khanewal to Lahore and between Lahore and Sahiwal; relay interlocking and tokenless block-working at 41 stations in the Chittagong-Dacca section; some 20 construction and remodelling projects of PER; a new railway line between Narsinghdi and Madanganj; the conversion of the Rupsa-East-Bengal Railway line from narrow gauge to broad gauge; a pre-stressed concrete-sleeper factory at Sukkur with a production capacity of 80,000 sleepers (rising to 200,000 ultimately); 78 miles of a link between Kot Adu-Dera Ghazi Khan-Jampur, which, when further extension is completed up to Kashmor, will provide an alternative and shorter route between Quetta and Peshawar; Phase II of the Karachi Circular Railway Project, linking Wazir Mansion with Karachi City; the provision of maintenance facilities for 34 railcars and 92 Japanese trailers at Rawalpindi, Lahore, and Rohri; and the construction of one bridge on the Rasul-Quadirabad link on the Lalamusa-Malakwal section and three on the Quadirabad-Baloki link canal. New rolling stock added in this period comprised 58 diesel electric locomotives, 299 passenger coaches, and 1,111 wagons in East Pakistan and 65 diesel locomotives, 563 coaches, and 5,551 wagons in West Pakistan.

Other major on-going or new projects on which satisfactory progress has been made in the Plan period include: construction of a carriage factory at Islamabad, with an annual production target of 150 all-steel welded carriages, resulting in an annual foreign exchange saving of Rs.22.8 million; expansion and balancing of the Central Mechanical Workshop at Moghalpura; expansion of the Central Diesel Locomotive Workshop at Rawalpindi; construction of a metre-gauge carriage and wagon repair shop at Hyderabad.

Finally, a number of projects have also been completed as part of the emphasis being placed on the improvement of amenities for passengers, which include electrification of stations and platform sheds, improvement of waiting rooms and platforms, reconstruction of old station buildings, provision of water coolers and air-conditioning, and public telephone booths.

Routes: The principal routes of the PER are: Dacca to Chittagong 198.5

miles; Dacca to Sylhet 183.5 miles; Dacca to Darsana 207.8 miles, including a ferry service between Jagannathganj and Serajganj Ghat; Dacca to Khulna 283.3 miles; and Dacca to Rajshahi 192.8 miles, including a ferry service (distances given are chargeable distances).

The principal routes of the PWR are: Peshawar to Karachi 1,042 miles, *via* Rawalpindi, Jhelum, Lala Musa, Lahore, Multan, Khairpur and Hyderabad; Karachi to Quetta 539 miles, through the Bolan Pass *via* Kotri, Dadu, Jacobabad, Sibi and Spezand; Rohri to Chaman 327 miles, *via* Habibkot and Quetta; Lahore to Mari Indus 392 miles, *via* Lyallpur, Sargodha and Kundian ; and Kot Adu to Dera Ghazi Khan 48.5 miles.

Traffic : Yearly passenger traffic increased from 8,180 million passenger-miles (1,923 EPR, 6,257 WPR) in 1964/65 to an estimated 8,861 passenger-miles (2,287 EPR; 6,574 WPR) in 1969/70. On an average, each passenger travelled 30.3 miles in East Pakistan and 48 miles in West Pakistan during 1968/69. The revenues earned by the two Railways from passenger traffic are about 33 per cent of total earnings in the case of the PER and 38 per cent in the case of the PWR.

Freight : Over-all freight traffic has remained largely unaltered at a little over 5,830 million ton-miles between 1964/65 and 1969/70. But in East Pakistan the freight mileage had decreased from 1,053 million ton-miles to 725 ton-miles in 1968/69, which was expected to pick up to 826 million ton-miles in 1969/70. Freight charges make up about 56 per cent of the revenue of PER and about 54 per cent of the revenue of PWR.

Employees : A total of about 191,000 persons are employed by the Railways, of which 71 per cent are in the West and 30 per cent in the East. Railway staff enjoy nousing, medical, educational and recreational benefits.

Training : The Walton Training School near Lahore in West Pakistan, with an annual output of 2,200 trainees, and the Lalmonirhat School in East Pakistan, with an annual output of 800 annual trainees, are the principal training schools. Among the staff trained are station masters, guards ticket examiners and collectors, drivers, shunters, telegraphists and commercial clerks. There are Diesel Locomotive Training Schools at Pahartali in East Pakistan and Karachi in West Pakistan. Polytechnic Institutes at Tejgaon, Dacca and Chittagong provide mechanical and electrical courses related to railway operations.

A Regional Railway Training Centre at Walton, which was originally a UNESCO project and then taken over by the Government in 1958, provides training in railway operations and signalling to local students as well as students from the Far and Middle East and South-East Asia.

Roads and Road Transport : Since Independence, the development of roads and the expansion of vehicular traffic has sharply reduced the distribution cost for many types of goods and introduced a

quicker, more frequent and more reliable service, with lower loss and damage in transport, particularly in West Pakistan. In East Pakistan, which may be considered more suited to inland water transport—because of a number of major rivers flowing through it and numerous streams feeding the rivers—roads are also essential to the transport system, particularly in the dry months, when inland navigation is restricted, and to link major administrative, industrial and agricultural centres with river and sea ports. Insufficient development of road transport in this zone of the country has therefore proved to be a bottleneck in the growth of its economy, and is also reflected, for example, in the large differences in prices prevailing in its different towns and in the over-loaded passenger buses and coaches.

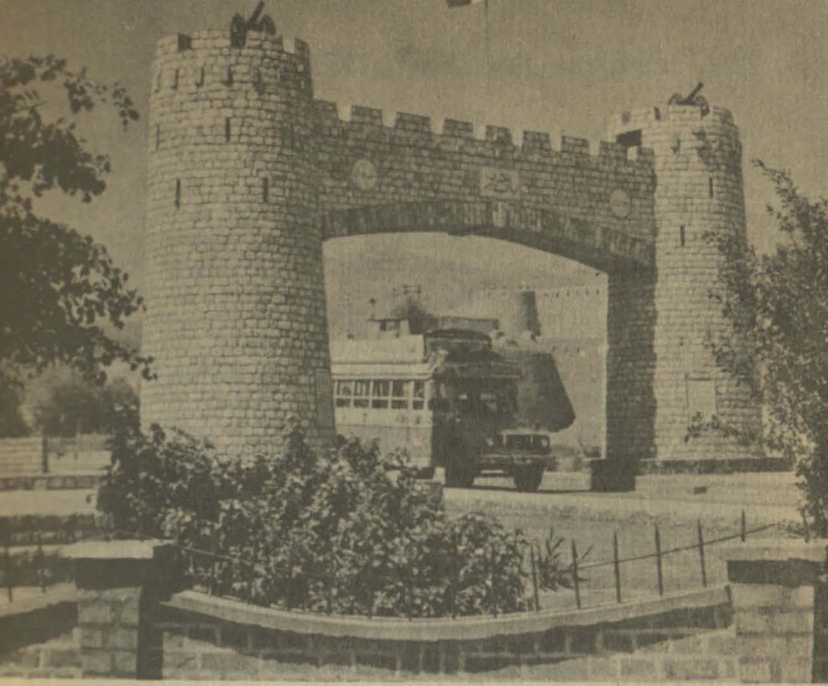
At the time of Indpendence, Pakistan inherited a very modest system of roads. There were 5,050 miles of metalled and 8,731 miles unmetalled roads in West Pakistan, and only 150 miles of metalled and 90 miles unmetalled roads in East Pakistan. And even of this meagre mileage of roads, a considerable proportion was in poor condition and in urgent need of reconstruction and improvement.

Between 1947 and 1955, a total expenditure of Rs. 350 million was incurred on the improvement and extension of roads. As a result, total road mileage increased to 19,572 miles, including 470 miles in East Pakistan. Then the First Plan made the following allocations for the development of road transport: Rs. 165 million to East Pakistan and Rs. 195 million to West Pakistan. Against these allocations, expenditures of Rs. 206 million and Rs. 200 million wre incurred in East and West Pakistan, respectively. During the Plan period, 665 miles of roads were constructed or improved in East Pakistan; and in West Pakistan, 1,150 miles of new roads were added and 1,400 miles of existing roads improved.

The Second Plan programme for road transport development provided Rs. 250 million each for East and West Pakistan and Rs. 45 million for Karachi and Special Areas. Later, due to the merger of Karachi in West Pakistan and certain other changes, the allocation for West Pakistan was raised to Rs. 275.7 million, and that for Special Areas reduced from Rs. 45 million to Rs. 43 million. This total allocation was 58 per cent higher than that made in the First Plan.

In East Pakistan, actual expenditure amounted to Rs. 365 million, with which 968 miles of new roads and 54,067 road-feet of bridges and culverts were constructed. In West Pakistan, with an actual expenditure of Rs. 260 million, 2,129 miles of new roads were constructed—including 1,310 miles of metalled, 320 miles of shingle and 499 miles of unmetalled roads—and 177 miles of existing roads were improved. In the same period, the mileage of high-type[1] surface roads was increased from 9,795 miles in 1960 to 13,363 miles—in East Pakistan from 995 to 1,963 miles; and in West

[1] Roads with a cement concrete, bituminous concrete or bituminous surface, in contrast to the low type, which are earth or gravel or at most stone or brick roads.



A bus coming through Bab-i-Khyber near Peshawar.

Pakistan from 8,800 to 11,400 miles.

Against the Third Plan allocation for road transport development, amounting to Rs. 1,020.41 million for East Pakistan and Rs. 933.75 million for West Pakistan, actual expenditure by the end of the Plan period is estimated at Rs. 447 million and Rs. 830 million, respectively.

In East Pakistan, the programme envisaged the completion of 1,000 miles of roads and the construction of bridges over the Dacca-Aricha Highway and the Karnafuli River. In fact, it is estimated that only about 485 miles of roads have been constructed. The shortfalls have mainly been due to the following factors: difficulties in the acquisition of land; difficulties in the procurement of construction materials; delay in the flow of foreign exchange for the aided projects; lack of funds from the country's own resources. However, contracts for the construction of bridges on the Dacca-Aricha Highway have been finalized, and work on them has been started in 1969/70. Material required for the construction of a floating bridge across the Karnafuli River has been received from the United Kingdom. Due to incomplete responses to earlier invitations for tenders, tenders for certain sections of the Dacca-Chittagong Highway have been invited for the third time. The total mileage of high-type roads under the Highway Department had thus increased to about 2,448 miles by 1970.

In West Pakistan, progress has been more satisfactory. Against the targets of 1,750 miles of new roads and improvement or reconditioning of

600 miles of existing roads, the respective estimated achievement figures are 1,310 and 1,108 miles of roads. The total mileage of high-type roads under the Highway Directorate had thus increased to about 12,700 miles by 1970. In addition, the following projects were also completed or in progress. Three new bridges financed with a World Bank loan were completed on the Ravi near Shahdara, on the Jhelum near Jhelum City, and on the Sutlej near Bahawalpur. Four other bridges have also been set up: over the Indus on the Thatta-Sujawal road; the Chichawatni over the Ravi; over the Malir River; the high-level bridge over the Kabul near Jahangira. The Karakoram Highway—linking Gilgit with the Chinese border, through Hunza, over 180 miles of some of the most difficult terrain in the world, rising to heights of up to 9,000 feet in the Pamir ranges—was opened to heavy vehicular traffic in February 1971. Work on the RCD Highway linking Karachi with Zahidan is in progress and scheduled for completion by 1972. Arrangements have been completed to start construction on the Lahore-Lyallpur and Shaikhupura-Sargodha Highways, and on the bridge over the Chenab at Talibwala. Feasibility studies are being taken up on a bridge over the Indus at Dera Ismail Khan and on the Lahore-Rawalpindi Highway.

In the Fourth Five-Year Plan, allocations for road transport development amount to Rs. 1,323 million for East Pakistan (including an item of Rs. 65 million for its Road Transport Corporation) and Rs. 1,100 million for West Pakistan.

Central Road Fund: The construction and maintenance of roads is primarily a Provincial responsibility. The Central Government is only concerned with national planning and international aspects of roads and highways, including the administration of a Reserve Fund established to assist the Provinces in the improvement and development of roads according to certain national/international standards and specifications.

The Central Road Fund was established in 1949, earmarking a 2.5 anna share of the Central excise and customs duties per gallon of motor spirit for road development. In 1953, the rate of contribution was enhanced from 2.5 annas to 5 annas or 31.25 paisa per gallon. Of the proceeds, 85 per cent is allocated to the Provinces for financing, wholly or partly, the construction of roads and bridge projects of national importance. The balance of 15 per cent is retained by the Centre as a Central Reserve to meet expenditure on research studies, surveys and experimental work. The annual proceeds of the Fund trebled from Rs. 3.75 million in 1952/53 to Rs. 10.37 million in 1953/54; and since then have gradually risen over the years, due to increase in petrol consumption—amounting to Rs. 34.6 million in 1969/70.

Road Transport: Road transport is largely in the hands of the private sector; but there are two road transport corporations operating in each wing of the country. In East Pakistan, the East Pakistan Road Transport Corporation (EPRTC) started its operations at Dacca in March 1961 with a fleet of only four buses, which gradually increased to 234 buses by the end of June 1965. With the full utilization of the Third Plan allocation of Rs. 40

million, the Corporation met basic targets, acquiring 547 new buses (313 additional and 234 replacements) and 20 trucks. In addition to this, Rs. 26.4 million were spent on other projects of road transport development.

Coach services introduced by the Corporation now link Dacca with the district headquarters and some other important places in the Rajshahi and Khulna Divisions, and Chittagong with Kaptai, Cox's Bazar and Rangamati. The bus services of the Corporation, including double-decker services, operate in Dacca City and adjoining areas, extending up to Mymensingh and Brahmanbaria; in Chittagong City; and in Pabna and its adjoining areas. Estimated income and expenditure of the Corporation in 1969/70 amounted to Rs. 18.34 million and Rs. 16.19 million, respectively.

In West Pakistan, the West Pakistan Transport Corporation (WPRTC) had a fleet of 1,433 buses at the beginning of the Second Plan period; and by the end of it, the fleet had been increased to 1,640 buses, including 1,080 new buses. Investing Rs. 106.89 million, against the Third Plan allocation of Rs. 135 million, the Corporation acquired 1,437 new buses in the first four years of the Plan, increasing its fleet strength to about 3,000. For 1969/70, an allocation of Rs. 26.1 million was provided to acquire an additional number of 1,280 buses, including replacements.

Except in Karachi, the WPRTC operates omnibus services on a monopoly basis in all the major towns of West Pakistan, while private operators compete with it on suburban routes. The mileage operated by the Corporation has increased from 51.76 million miles in 1964/65 to over 81 million miles in 1969/70; and over the same period, the number of passengers carried has increased from 168.65 million to about 296 million. Income and expenditure in this period has risen from Rs. 69.32 million and Rs. 62.0 million to about Rs. 109 million and Rs. 107 million, respectively.

Motor Vehicles : The total number of motor vehicles in East Pakistan has increased from a mere 4,380 in 1947 to 39,383 in 1964 and to 60,352 in 1968; and in West Pakistan from about 21,000 in 1947 to 201,159 in 1964 and to 286,345 in 1968.

East Pakistan Inland Waterways : East Pakistan is served by 5,000 miles of navigable waterways, comprising the lower reaches of the Ganges, the Brahmaputra and the Meghna rivers, which play an essential role in the economic life and development of East Pakistan. Plying passengers and cargo on these waterways, there are 2,511 mechanized and dumb craft, with a total carrying capacity of 116,000 passengers and 268,000 tons of cargo. In addition, there are over 300,000 country boats which carry 17 million tons of cargo every year.

Established in November 1958, as an autonomous organization, the East Pakistan Inland Water Transport Authority, is responsible for the development of inland river ports and launch stations, river conservancy works, rural water transport and pilotage; the provision of aids to navigation; fixing fares and freight rates; hydrographic surveys and dredging of waterways; removal of wrecks; dissemination of navigational and meteorological in-

formation; research in craft design; towage and terminal facilities; technical training; traffic surveys and co-ordination with other forms of transport. Assisting the Authority, there is an Advisory Committee, whose membership, in addition to the Chairman and a member of the Authority, includes representation from the Government, other concerned autonomous organizations and private operators.

Development: During the Second Five-Year Plan period, as against the provision of Rs. 90 million in the public sector and Rs. 140 million in the private sector, expenditure on the implementation of projects in the public sector amounted to Rs. 126.5 million. The schemes taken up for execution during the Second Plan period included modernization of aids to navigation, development of inland river ports, provision for landing stages at launch stations, a hydrographic survey, dredging of channels, procurement of a salvage unit, setting up of the Dacca Chain Radio Location System, provision of ferry terminals, acquisition of various types of river craft, and establishment of a marine workshop at Barisal. The Third Plan allocated Rs. 261 million in the public sector for development schemes of the EPIWT Authority. Expenditure on the implementation of these projects amounted to about Rs. 127 million, of which most was spent on the completion of the on-going projects of the Second Five-Year Plan. Apart from shortage of funds and difficulties in acquiring requisite land, a major factor responsible for the shortfall was the insufficiency of essential feasibility studies.

Principal achievements during the period included the completion of works in five major inland river ports at Dacca, Narayanganj, Chandpur, Barisal and Khulna, and also the Decca Chain Radio Location System; the construction of timber jetties at 18 places in the cyclone-affected coastal areas and passenger terminals and cargo sheds at 12 places; completion of 90 per cent of the work on the repair workshop at Barisal; the procurement of one self-docking floating dock from Germany, one hydrographic survey-cum-inspection launch from Hong Kong, one survey hovermarine and an inspection hovercraft from U.K., and one navigational dredger from U.S.A; the construction of 114 floating pontoons to facilitate the landing of passengers at launch stations in rural and semi-urban areas. A pilot project for the mechanization of country craft with the help of outboard and in-board engines also made progress during the period. Work was started on the establishment of a training centre for masters and deckhands, and on the dredging of the Mongla-Chasiakhali Link.

The Fourth Plan public sector allocation for inland water transport in East Pakistan amounts to Rs. 315 million, of which Rs. 113 million are for the completion of Third Plan projects. Included in the Fourth Plan programme are projects for: the provision of an increased number of discharge points at major inland river ports along with efficient loading and unloading facilities; the creation of new discharge points to be fed from Chalna; the creation of new links and routes required to serve areas in North Bengal and other places; aids to navigation and the training of personnel; the extensive mechanization of country boats and the introduction of fast-

moving crafts (hydrofoils, hovermarines, etc.).

Marine Shipping : Pakistan is virtually a maritime country, having little over-land trade and depending on sea-borne exports and imports for the development of its national economy.

Following the Maritime Commission's recommendations, the control of shipping policy was transferred from the Ministry of Commerce to the Ministry of Communications in 1960. The following year, a Directorate General of Ports and Shipping was set up to co-ordinate the operations of ports and shipping and to implement the Government's shipping policy.

Development : The merchant shipping of Pakistan has maintained a steady rate of progress. From a modest beginning of three ships with 18,500 dead-weight tons at the time of Independence, by the end of the Second Plan, the merchant fleet had grown to 55 ships with 535,000 dead-weight tons. The present fleet comprises 73 vessels, including 66 dry cargo ships and seven passenger or passenger-cum-cargo ships, with a carrying capacity of over 750,000 dead-weight tons and 6,000 passengers. The fleet is being operated by the National Shipping Corporation and 11 other shipping companies in the private sector.

The Pakistan merchant fleet, besides handling the entire normal interwing trade, carries about 14 per cent of the country's total foreign trade; and now earns and saves foreign exchange amounting to over Rs. 160 million annually. The fleet is operating on many international routes, covering freight services to Britain, Europe, U.S.A., Canada, Indonesia, China, Japan, Burma, Ceylon, Iran, Turkey, the Persian Gulf States and the Red Sea ports. The entire Hajj traffic is also carried by Pakistani ships.

The Fourtn Plan aims at increasing Pakistan's share in its international trade to 27 per cent with a cargo fleet strength of 123 ships comprising 1.3 million dead-weight tons. For this purpose, 75 ships are to be acquired (18 as replacements and 57 as additions) with Plan allocations of Rs. 450 million to NSC and Rs. 440 million to private shipping companies.

National Shipping Corporation (NSC) : This Corporation was set up in 1963 as statutory autonomous body, the Government's share being 25 per cent, and the remaining 75 per cent being held by the public, in equal proportion between the two wings of the country. The Corporation's authorized capital is 250 million, divided into 25 million shares of Rs. 10 each, of which Rs. 50 million have been fully subscribed. The management of the Corporation is entrusted to a Board of Directors, comprising nine members, of whom five—including the Chairman, the Managing Director and the Financial Director—are appointed by the Government, while the remaining four are elected by the share-holders, two from each wing of the country. The present strength of the National Shipping Corporation fleet is 30 dry cargo vessels, with a capacity of about 326,000 dead-weight tons.

Consequent upon the Corporation's decision in 1967/68 to have its

own lighterage facilities, two barges, of 250 dead weight tons each, constructed at the Karachi Shipyard, are in operation. An additional order for the construction of four barges of the same dead weight was placed in East Pakistan, two at the Narayanganj and two at the Khulna Shipyard. The Corporation's fleet is at present operating between Pakistani ports and ports in the following areas: UK-Continent; Adriatic-Turkey ; U.S.A.-Canada; Ceylon-Persian Gulf/Red Sea ; Ceylon-China-Far East ; Indonesia-Australia. In addition, it also participates in coastal trade between East and West Pakistan.

During 1968/69, the Corporation carried 1.25 million freight-tons of cargo in 128 voyages. The total freight earnings for 1968/69 amounted to Rs. 3,156.6 million, inclusive of a gross foreign exchange plus saving of Rs. 150.1 million (net earned foreign exchange Rs. 74.1 million). The cumulative net profit earned by the Corporation between 1963 and 1969 amounted to Rs. 107.8 million, rising steadily over the years. Dividends paid out have risen from Rs. 1.6 million in 1964/65 to Rs. 10 million in 1968/69, the rate for dividends having increased from 10 to 20 per cent. The tonnage handled and the earnings between 1963/64 and 1968/69 are given in the following Table :

NSC Tonnage Handled and Earnings

Year	Shipping/tons	Freight	Foreign Exchange earned (in million Rs.)
1963/64	75	8.0	2.0
1964/65	517	53.1	21.4
1965/66	692	67.0	27.1
1966/67	1,145	105.2	35.3
1967/68	1,098	131.9	63.5
1968/69	1,251	156.6	74.1
Total ..	4,778	521.7	223.4

Source : NSC.

International Co-operation : Pakistan collaborates with other countries on common routes to ensure the standardization of rates and services. These

'Conference Lines' establish a standard schedule and freight tariff.

The Regional Co-operation for Development (RCD) covers a joint shipping venture by Iran, Turkey and Pakistan. Apart from handling the traffic between these countries, the venture takes care of 50 per cent of the trade between these countries and the United States. The ratio of ships contributed by Pakistan, Turkey and Iran is 10 : 7 : 3, respectively.

NSC has an agreement with two shipping organizations in Indonesia, Bipalindo and Djarkarta Lloyd, for a regular joint service between the two countries.

There is also a maritime transport agreement between Pakistan and China, whereby the most-favoured-nation treatment is accorded by each nation to the other's ships. The agreement between the National Shipping Corporation and the China Ocean Shipping Company provides for a regular service between Pakistan and China, which may also be extended to Africa.

Training : There are two full-fledged Seamen's Training Centres and a Marine Academy to produce qualified seamen for Pakistan's merchant navy.

It was estimated that to meet the demands of Pakistan's continually expanding merchant fleet, 725 deck officers, 985 engineer officers and 20,000 ratings would be required by 1970. To support such training and recruitment, the NSC has been providing scholarships for cadets/trainees, which in 1969 amounted to a total grant of Rs. 100,000.

East Pakistan Shipping Corporation : Established in 1964 and functioning since January 1965, the purpose of EPSC has been to provide passenger-cum-cargo services for the hitherto neglected and isolated coastal islands. With its four coasters, four landing-craft type of vessels, 10 motor life-boats and 12 ferry vessels, the Corporation operates coastal services on various coastal routes, and ferry services on various road gaps on the national highways. During 1969/70, the coastal services carried 617,177 passengers and 34,230 tons of cargo, while the ferry services handled 1,113,781 passengers and 65,887 vehicles.

Ports : Pakistan has three sea ports at Karachi, Chittagong and Chalna (Mongla). The first phase of the feasibility study on establishing a fourth port at Somiani or the Phitti Creek on the Makran coast in West Pakistan has been completed, and further studies and investigations are under way, including the alternative possibility of expanding the Karachi Port.

Karachi : As the only port in West Pakistan, Karachi has a crucial importance for the country's coastal and international shipping. In addition to this, it handles the seaborne trade of Afghanistan and Azad Kashmir. The anchorage area of the port is 2,474 acres and there is a breakwater wall at Manora, which is 1,150 feet long and 24 feet wide. The Keamari groyne on the eastern Bank is 1.5 miles long. Together, these two breakwaters protect the harbour against littoral drifts and silting. The Port Trust is administered by a Board of Trustees consisting of 11 members, including the

Chairman.

The Port has the following facilities :

(a) Channel with a length of 4.27 miles.

(b) Seventeen Shipping berths on the east and four on the west.

(c) Two oil piers, one of 403 feet, but capable of berthing tankers, up to 550 feet long, and a newly constructed berth of 644 feet.

(d) Boat Wharf with 20 berths.

(e) Ten fixed moorings for both cargo handling and anchoring ships, and three swing moorings for light vessels.

(f) Boat basin providing ferry transport for the public and the Port Trust.

(g) Ship-repairing berth for merchant navy ships not involving dry docking. Other normal facilities include rail and road connections for cargo, special equipment for cargo handling ancillary craft and an open storage area.

Against the Third Plan allocation of Rs. 300 million, an estimated expenditure of Rs. 251.7 million was made during 1965-70 on the development of the Port, which included the following projects: construction of a new oil berth and two new lighterage berths near Juna Bunder; rehabilitation of the Manora Breakwater; construction of a sea-wall in the reclamation area of Keamari; purchase of craft and equipment; completion of quay-wells at West Wharf Berths No. 22 and 24 and resumption of work on the delayed construction of quay-wells at East Wharf Berths 1-4; substantial progress on

Narayanganj Dockyard, East Pakistan.



ancillary works for the new berths at the West Wharf, on widening and deepening the main navigable channel, on the mechanization and modernization of cargo handling equipment to cope with the increasing influx of cargo, and on the completion of the Master Plan for the Karachi Port, of which the Stage I hydraulic model investigations have been completed.

The growth of traffic handled at the Port from 1959/60 to 1969/70 is shown in the following Table :

(Thousand tons)

Year (July-June)	Imports	Exports	Total	Percentage increase over (1959/60)
1959/60	3,424	1,078	4,502	—
1960/61	3,911	1,068	4,979	10.5
1961/62	3,489	1,117	4,606	2.3
1962/63	4,016	1,545	5,561	23.5
1963/64	4,523	1;331	5,854	30.0
1964/65	6,273	1,533	7,806	73.3
1965/66	5,184	1,869	7,053	56.7
1966/67	6,786	2,285	9,071	101.5
1967/68	6,405	2,258	8,663	92.5
1968/69	5,515	2,788	8,303	84.5
1969/70	5,929	3,372	9,301	106.6

Chittagong : This principal port of East Pakistan is situated on the right bank of the river Karnafuli, 9 miles north-east of the Bay of Bengal. The width of the channel varies between 670 feet and 1,100 feet. Like Karachi. the Chittagong Port is also administered by a Board of 11 Trustees, including a Chairman, under the control of the Directorate-General of Ports and Shipping.

There are 11 permanent jetties and some light pontoon jetties and moorings. An off-shore terminal which supplies crude oil to the Eastern Refinery also handles tankers of up to 45,000 dead-weight tons. .Other facilities include cargo handling, storage, fresh water, fuel oil, harbour craft, lighterage fleet, fire-protection, and an ultra-high frequency radio network. At the time of Independence, the Port had only four jetties with a handling capacity of 0.5 million tons of cargo annually; since then rapid

development of the Port has increased its handling capacity to 3.64 million tons by the end of the Second Plan period and to over 4.75 million tons by 1969/70.

Against the Third Plan allocation of Rs. 300 million, actual expenditure on development of the Port amounted to little over Rs. 111 million, which was mainly spent on the continuing rehabilitation and extension work on Jetties 1-6; the construction of a slipway and workshop; the acquisition of a floating crane of 120/125 tons capacity; completion of the offshore oil terminal; and works relating to the development of low-lying areas and the construction of residential quarters. The scheme relating to a lighterage jetty with a warehouse at Sadarhat has been reappraised. River training works are in progress and new schemes for the replacement of pontoon and light jetties and the construction of additional jetties have been undertaken or are under study. Review of the Master Plan for the development of the Port adopted in 1965 is also to be reviewed in the light of changed circumstances.

The growth of traffic handled at the Port from 1959/60 to 1969/70 is shown below :

Traffic Handled at Chittagong Port

(Thousand tons)

Year	Imports	Export	Total	Percentage increase over 1959/60
1959/60	2,147	497	2,644	—
1960/61	2,226	294	2,620	0.9
1961/62	2,456	444	2,900	0.7
1962/63	2,712	508	3,220	21.8
1963/64	3,298	562	3,860	46.0
1964/65	2,865	425	3,290	24.4
1965/66	3,098	543	3,641	37.7
1966/67	3,823	503	4.326	63.7
1967/68	3,539	516	4.055	53.4
1968/69	4,041	484	4.525	71.2
1969/70	4,177	574	4.751	80.0

Source: Chittagong Port Trust.



Chittagong Port, East Pakistan.

Chalna (*Mongla*) : The Chalna Anchorage was first established as an experimental anchorage in 1950 to see whether it could be developed to relieve pressure on Chittagong. Situated 9 miles south of Chalna, and with Khulna as its headquarters, it is served mainly by inland water transport vessels, which load and unload cargo into and from ocean-going vessels at the Anchorage. The Anchorage has 15 moorings where vessels are made fast with their own cables. Eleven more ships can be safely anchored within four miles of the Anchorage. There are pilot and survey vessels, dispatch launches, harbour tugs and other navigational facilities. Ultra-high frequency (UHF) telephone communication is also available.

Work is under way to convert Chalna into a fully equipped port with the construction of eight general cargo berths and of food-grain, bulk cargo and oil terminals; development of residential and administrative areas; extension of road and railway lines from Khulna to the port-head, a distance of 28 miles; and construction of a rail-cum-road bridge over the Rupsa River. The Third Plan had allocated Rs. 160 million towards such development; but so far only Rs. 52 million have been invested, due to delays in the completion of various studies and preliminary reclamation and other work on the land. However, rehabilitation work carried over from the Second Plan period and the construction of a jetty have been completed.

The Chalna Anchorage is making a significant contribution to the economic development of East Pakistan by efficiently handling its jute exports—both raw and manufactured—and substantial imports of machinery, food-grains, cement, coal and other sundry items. The total tonnage handled at the Anchorage has mounted from 0.89 million tons in 1959/60 to over 2

million tons in 1969/70, as shown below :

Traffic Handled at Chalna Anchorage

(Thousand tons)

Year	Imports	Export	Total	Percentage increase over 1959/60
1959/60	259	627	886	—
1960/61	374	480	854	3.6
1961/62	325	677	1,002	13.1
1962/63	799	709	1,508	79.1
1963/64	861	800	1,661	87.5
1964/65	293	707	1,000	12.9
1965/66	618	872	1,490	68.2
1966/67	988	863	1,851	109.0
1967/68	710	970	1,680	89.6
1968/69	1,080	947	2,027	128.8
1969/70	1,039	1,004	2,043	130.6

The Fourth Plan has made an allocation of Rs. 300 million towards the completion of berths (on which preliminary work has been started by a Yugoslav firm under contract), the acquisition of equipment and other steps towards making Chalna a permanent port capable of handling 4.8 million tons of dry cargo by 1975.

Civil Aviation : Pakistan's progress in civil aviation has been one of the most heartening features of the country's development. Starting with only a few navigational aids, trained personnel and modern equipment and with only one international airport, Karachi, the country has achieved very rapid expansion in this field.

Airports: A 10,500-foot runway was constructed at Karachi Airport in 1960, and a new international jet airport is under construction at Dacca at a cost of Rs. 177 million. A new jet runway at Islamabad is in the last stages of completion. PIA is already operating big jets into Islamabad, linking the capital with the rest of the country and the R.C.D. countries. Jet airports have also been planned for Lahore and Chittagong.

To accommodate Pakistan International Airlines' (PIA) feeder services, which link the smaller and remoter regions of West Pakistan with bigger cities and with one another, the aerodromes at Sukkur, Rahimyar Khan, Pasni, Gwadar and Panjgur have been renovated. Terminal facilities at



Some Pakistani women are beginning to take an interest in flying.

Quetta, Chaklala, and Chittagong have also been expanded to provide more facilities to passengers.

Consequent upon PIA's decision to introduce STOL (Short Take-Off and Landing) aircraft operations in East Pakistan and hilly northern areas of West Pakistan, STOL-ports have been set up at Rajshahi, Faridpur, Barisal, and Khulna in East Pakistan, with flights starting at the beginning of 1971; and STOL flights in West Pakistan have been started in April the same year to connect Rawalpindi with Bannu, Kohat, Tarbela and Peshawar. The latter services will ultimately be expanded to cover Turbat, Saidu Sharif, Abbotabad, Mangla, Sahiwal, Khuzdar and Dherki, as STOL-ports are completed. Six Canadian-built Twin Otter-300 aircraft—three each for East and West Pakistan—have been acquired for these services. The Otter requires a runway of less than 3,000 feet, and costs less than half the the price of the Sikorsky helicopter (whose flights were introduced in East Pakistan in 1963, and then suspended in 1966, following two crashes). The Twin Otter-300 has a carrying capacity of 20 passengers and a cruising speed of 200 m.p.h.

Radio Aids to Navigation : Radio-communication and air-navigation aids are constantly being improved in both wings of the country.

The Dacca-Calcutta combined RTT (Radio Teletype) and ATS (Air Traffic Services) Speech Circuit, using independent side-band techniques, has now started operating. This system enables direct contact between Dacca and Calcutta, which is essential for safe and efficient operation of aircraft operating in the region. A very high frequency ATS Speech Circuit between Lahore and Amritsar has also been established and is working

satisfactorily. Dacca has similarly been linked with Bangkok by Radio Teletype Circuit. Test Transmission on this system will commence shortly. A Slave Station at Chandpur, which is a part of the VHF (Very High Frequency) Peripheral System in East Pakistan, is being installed. The system will provide extended range coverage on VHF communication.

To enable aircraft to effect landings in bad weather, instrument landing systems (ILS) have been established at Karachi, Lahore and Dacca Airports. This landing facility is also being established at Chaklala/Islamabad.

To provide short-range navigational facilities unaffected by weather conditions, VOR (Very High Frequency Omni-Directional Radio Range) systems have been established at Karachi, Nawabshah, Jiwani, Lahore, Chittagong, Dacca, Ishurdi, Rahimyar Khan, Multan and Panjgur. Non-Directional beacons are also available at Karachi, Cape Monze, Fort Sandeman, Gharo, Chor, Hyderabad, Nawabshah, Rahimyar Khan, Panjgur, Jiwani, Quetta, Lahore, Chaklala, Sihala, Sheikhupura, Lyallpur, Multan, Dacca, Shamshernagar, Chittagong, Comilla, Cox's Bazar, Ishurdi, Jessore, Sylhet and Shibganj.

Work is also in progress for the establishment of a new high frequency antenna system at the Chaklala Transmission Station, and this will significantly improve its over-all efficiency.

Flying Clubs : To expand flying activities in East Pakistan, the Government established a second flying-cum-gliding club at Chittagong in June 1970. Two new aircraft and two gliders have since been purchased from abroad for this Club. In addition, the Government has sanctioned a grant of Rs. 50,000 to enable the Club to construct a Hangar and Club House, and to meet expenses on the purchase of basic engineering equipment.

For Pakistan as a whole, there are now seven flying clubs : one each at Karachi, Lahore, Rawalpindi, Peshawar, Multan, Dacca and Chittagong. These clubs produce the bulk of commercial pilots for employment in PIA and other Governmental bodies, besides promoting air-mindedness among the people of the country.

Air Traffic Control and Safety : Flight information centres at Karachi, Lahore and Dacca provide information to aircraft in their respective regions for the safe operation of flights. In addition, the Radar Control Service at Karachi controls all the traffic operating within 50 miles of the Airport, where it is particularly dense, thus making it possible to accommodate more aircraft in a limited air pace and to expedite the flow of traffic.

An Aeronautical Information Service collects and disseminates information, while an International Notam (Notice to Airmen) Office exchanges Notams with other countries.

The Flight Inspection Division, set up by the Department of Civil Aviation, conducts theoretical and practical tests of candidates before issuing licences. It also investigates aircraft accidents and checks flying standards in the country in the interests of flight safety.

The Aeronautical Inspection Division of the Department ensures

that aircraft conform to established airworthiness requirements, investigates aircrafts defects and examines personnel connected with aircraft engineering for the issue of licences.

International Agreements: Pakistan is a member of both the Warsaw Convention of 1929 and the Hague Protocol of 1955. The latter, *inter alia*, amends the Warsaw Convention, increasing the limit of the air-carrier's liability to double the limit laid down by the Convention. The provisions of both these international agreements have been enacted in Pakistan in the shape of the Carriage by Air Act, 1934, and Carriage by Air International Act, 1966, of which the latter enables the legal heirs of a Pakistani killed or injured in an air accident to claim compensation from the air-carrier.

Pakistan is also a member of the International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO, affiliated to the UN), Montreal, and the Commonwealth Air Transport Council, London; and the Pakistan International Airlines is a member of the International Air Transport Association (IATA).

International Air traffic is regulated by bilateral air service agreements; and Pakistan has entered into such agreements with over 33 countries, while 24 foreign airlines operate scheduled services to and through Pakistan.

Pakistan International Airlines Corporation: PIA has maintained a steady record of progress since its inception in 1955, incorporating the Orient Airways. PIA now handles all air routes within the country and all international services originating in Pakistan. Its first jet service was started in 1960, on the Karachi-Tehran-Beirut-Rome-Geneva route in 1960. And in 1964, PIA became the first international airline in the world outside the socialist block to operate a service to the People's Republic of China.

During the Third Plan period, PIA developed and expanded its services with an investment of about Rs. 320 million, against the Plan allocation of Rs. 345 million. During this period, it acquired three Trident IE (excluding the President's aircrafts), three Boeing 707-340C and four Fokker Friendship F27 aircraft, in addition to completing projects for the construction of a jet hangar and engineering workshops, and for a flight training Digital Simulator. Conventional Viscounts have been replaced by the Tridents, and DC-3s have given way to the F-27s. As indicated in the section on Airports, in 1971 six Twin Otter-300 aircraft have also been secured for STOL flights in East and West Pakistan. As a result of this expansion and development, the ton-mile flying capacity (CTM) of PIA has increased by over 96 per cent from 124.4 million CTM in 1964/65 to 244.4 million CTM in 1969/70—with a corresponding 77.4 per cent increase in revenue ton-miles (TTM) from 78.9 million RTM in 1964/65 to 140 million RTM in 1969/70. It's operating revenue has increased from Rs. 114 million in 1960/61 to Rs. 425 million in 1968/69.

In 1965, PIA had 14 international and 18 domestic stations (excluding services to India and helicopter operations in East Pakistan). During the Plan period, PIA has added another 13 international stations to its network:

Paris, Istanbul, Tirana, Damascus, Baghdad, Kuwait, Jeddah, Bahrain, Doha, Dubai, Bangkok, Manila and Tokyo. To its domestic network, PIA has added 12 more stations: Hyderabad, Nawabshah, Sukkur, Mohenjodaro, Sui, Panjgur, Pasni, Gwadar, Jiwani and Dera Ismail Khan in West Pakistan, and Shamsher Nagar and Thakurgaon in East Pakistan. Furthermore, an all-cargo service has been started on inter-wing routes during 1969/70, and steps have been taken to introduce short take-off and landing (STOL) aircraft services in both East and West Pakistan .

Amongst notable operational achievements during 1969/70 are: the 'Pearl Route' service to Manila and Tokyo, which also airlinks Bangkok and Dacca; the introduction of twice-a-week flights on its Karachi-London route *via* Damascus, economizing on the frequency of PIA flights through Beirut from four to two per week; and a through daily jet (Trident IE) service between Dacca and Rawalpindi *via* Lahore, while continuing the existing weekly five Boeing flights between Dacca and Lahore. (India's ban on Pakistani flights over Indian territory introduced in February 1971 has, however, involved a disruption of this schedule with inter-wing flights re-routed between Karachi and Dacca *via* Ceylon.)

Training : PIA's training activities, which are centred in the Ground Training School at Karachi, have been further expanded. The School has about 50 qualified instructors, with facilities for training in all aspects of the Airlines' operation. And PIA's Flying School, established in 1968, produced two batches of pilots who received their commercial pilot licenses in 1968/69. To raise the standard of such training, a Digital Simulator for Boeing 707 operations is being introduced, which will enable trainees to simulate and prepare for many emergencies that cannot be simulated on board training flights.

PIA has also developed facilities for training its apprentice mechanics with the co-operation of the Pakistan Air Force; and currently some 100 apprentices are under training.

With the introduction of the Aircraft Radio Maintenance Engineer's Licence in Pakistan, the Ground Training School developed and started the first radio licence preparatory course.

A number of new refresher courses for ground staff and other courses for technical, administrative, sales and passenger service have been developed and started in 1968/69. These courses are given to both domestic and foreign-based PIA staff.

Finally, PIA's Ground Training School continued to provide training facilities for other international airlines as well. A number of trainees, including pilots, airhostesses and electronic engineers from Jordan, Nepal, Kuwait and Iran, have completed their training.

Engineering and Safety : Since the completion of the Boeing hangar at Karachi in 1968, major inspections and overhauls of Boeing aircraft are carried out here instead of in the United States, as before. Overhaul of pneumatic

equipment has also been provided for, and now 98 per cent of the overhaul work required for the PIA fleet of 23 aircraft (as a jesture of goodwill and friendship, three Super-Constellation aircraft were donated to Indonesia in 1968/69) is carried out in the Airline's own workshops. On-the-job training for service engineers and technical planning have been established to furnish specialized support for overhaul and maintenance activities.

As part of an international technical co-operation programme of PIA, its Engineering Department has undertaken the following responsibilities: for the Royal Nepal Airlines, the overhaul of airframe engine components and propellers of its Fokker aircraft; for Air Ceylon, carrying out major maintenance, repairs and orhaul on its Trident aircraft at Karachi; and for Air Taxi of Iran, general technical assistance.

Comprehensive flight safety continued to recive careful attention, and the Airline's new flight safety Magazine, which provides detailed information on flight safety standards and techniques, was widely appreciated in the industry and won the annual award of the U.S. Civil Aviation Safety Foundation in 1969.

Expansion: The following table indicates PIA's expanded operational activities during 1968/69 and 1969/70 as compared with 1964/65 figures :

Expansion of PIA's Operational Activities

(In millions)

Particulars	1964/65	1968/69	1969/70	Percentage increase in 1969/70 over 1964/65
Capacity ton-miles	124.4	217.7	244.4	96.5
Revenue ton-miles	78.9	124.4	140.0	77.4
Number of Revenue Passengers carried	82.5	122.3	137.6	66.8
Available seat-miles	889.6	1,616.9	1,718.1	93.1
Revenue passenger-miles	593.5	963.5	1,081.2	82.2
Passenger load factor	667.2	595.9	629.3	—
Over-all load factor	634.2	571.4	611.2	—

Source : *Pakistan Economic Survey, 1969/70.*

The future growth of PIA's traffic on existing international routes is expected to be mainly in the field of tourism, to encourage which PIA has

organized group tours that cover various parts of Asia, including Pakistan. During 1968/69, about 30 major tours of this type were arranged; and it is anticipated that in the course of time more and more tour operators will be making use of PIA services in this field.

Management and Staff: PIA is a Government-sponsored autonomous Corporation managed by a Board of nine Directors, of whom the Government appoints seven, including the Chairman and Managing Director, for a term of three years. The Managing Director is the chief executive. The authorized capital of the Corporation is Rs. 120 million, of which Rs. 112.5 million has been issued and paid up, including a Government investment of Rs. 101.9 million and a private sector investment of Rs. 10.6 million. In addition, the Corporation has also obtained a long-term (secured) loan of Rs. 203.8 million. In 1968/69, the Corporation declared an enhanced dividend of 10 per cent to its shareholders, as compared with an average of 7.5 per cent for the preceding years 1965-68.

To cope with increased work, the strength of the total PIA staff has been increased from 12,617 in 1968 to 13,220 in 1969. Action on the staff welfare schemes of the Airline has continued, and the first phase of a PIA Housing Colony is nearing completion. Under another welfare scheme, a dispensary has been established in the Engineering Hangar at Karachi Airport. PIA has also created a workers' Participation Fund for the welfare of staff, and proposes to place part of its profits in the Fund.

Communications

The Central Government is the administrative authority for postal services and telecommunications. Attached to the Ministry of Communications, the Pakistan Post Office and the Telephone and Telegraph Directorates-General are responsible for the maintenance and development of their respective organizations. Each headed by a Director-General, the two departments have a staff of more than 50,000 full-time and 20,000 part-time employees.

Post Office: In addition to normal postal services, the Post Office offers a variety of other services, such as a network of savings banks, Postal Life Insurance, renewal of Arms and Driving Licenses, Collection of Motor Vehicles Tax, collection of route permit fees, sale of excise stamps, issue and renewal of radio licences, disbursement of pensions to Defence Personnel, and the sale of anti-malaria drugs.

The Department is divided into five postal circles: two in East Pakistan and three in West Pakistan, with headquarters at Dacca and Khulna in East Pakistan; and Karachi, Lahore and Peshawar in West Pakistan. These Circles are subdivided into Divisions and Head Post Offices, headed by a Superintendent Head Postmaster. The Postal Life Insurance Organi-

zation is divided into two Circles for West and East Pakistan, each under the charge of a General Manager, with headquarters at Karachi and Dacca, respectively. The Post Office Department also maintain seven Regional Training Centres at Karachi, Lahore and Rawalpindi/Islamabad in West Pakistan, and Dacca, Rajshahi, Chittagong and Khulna in East Pakistan.

At the time of Independence, there were only 6,465 Post Offices in the country 2,923 in East Pakistan and 3,542 in West Pakistan. During the First, Second and Third Five-Year Plan periods, the Department had set itself a target of opening 1,300, 1,500 and 2,000 new Post Offices, respectively. Against these targets, 1,375, 1,505 and 2,491 Post Offices were in fact opened during the relevant periods. At the end of the Third Plan, the total number of Post Offices in the country rose to 14, 250. In the Fourth Five-Year Plan, provision has been made for the establishment of another 3,000 new small Post Offices, mainly in rural areas, and arrangements are well under way to open 500 new Post Offices (250 in each wing) during the first year of the current Plan period.

Mail traffic has risen by 140 per cent since 1948/49. Remittances through Post Offices have gone up by 132 per cent in number and 244 per cent in value. Over 2 million registered and unregistered articles and over 32,000 money orders, worth Rs. 2,00,000, are handled every day.

The inter-wing All Up Air Mail scheme introduced in October 1959 (after a partial beginning had been made in 1952) ensures that all letters are air-lifted to their destinations wherever air-lift facilities are available. The volume of foreign mail carried by air has increased by 130 per cent from 1962/63 to 1969/70.

Automatic stamp vending and electrically operated stamp cancelling machines, franking machines and three electro-mechanical letter-sorting machines are being used for greater efficiency. The letter-sorting machines work at the rate of 100 letters per minute. Motorized transport and motor launches are also being used to speed up postal delivery.

About 150 Night Post Offices are at present functioning in the country, with a view to providing special facilities to busy centres of the urban population. At important places, the sale of stamps and the booking of registered mail is kept open on Sundays and other holidays. For rural areas, Mobile Post Offices have been introduced on a significant scale.

International Postal Service Relations : Pakistan is playing a prominent role in the field of international postal services as a First Class Member of the Universal Postal Union (UPU), and is currently a member of its Executive Council.

Pakistan was Chairman of the Operational Section of the outgoing Management Council of the Consultative Council for Postal Studies of the UPU, and the Tokyo Congress of the UPU has elected it Chairman of the newly constituted Technical Co-operation Committee of the Consultative Council for Postal studies, of which Pakistan is also a Vice-Chairman. This has added a privileged responsibility to the role played by the Pakistan Post Office in international forums.

Home Remittance Scheme: A scheme to grant 30 per cent bonus on remittances by Pakistanis working abroad was started in 1963 and has met with excellent response. Then the bonus entitlement was increased to 40 per cent after the devaluation of the Pound Sterling in November 1967. Now about £7 million are being received through postal channels alone. Recently, the rate has been further increased to 45 per cent, with effect from June 13, 1970.

RCD: Surface postage rates for all categories of letter mail, postcards, printed and commercial papers between the RCD countries stand reduced to the level of their internal rates.

Terminal charges on parcels have been reduced to the basic level as laid down in the Parcel Post Agreement of the Universal Postal Union. And airmail services are being utilized extensively to expedite the mail service between the three countries.

All the three RCD countries simultaneously brought out a set of two postage stamps in July 1965, another set of three stamps depicting a miniature painting of each country in July 1969, and a further set of three stamps depicting a tourist site of each country in July 1970—to mark the First, Fifth and Sixth Anniversary of the establishment of RCD.

Training: The Postal Training Organization was created in 1953; and at present, there are seven Postal Training Centres functioning at Karachi, Lahore, Islamabad, Dacca, Khulna, Rajshahi and Chittagong. Up to the end of the year, 38,000 officials of various cadres have been trained in the two wings of the country.

Under various technical co-operation schemes, Pakistan also sends selected postal personnel abroad for specialized training. In 1969/70, eight officers, including three senior officers of the status of Postmaster-General, received training abroad under these schemes.

Pakistan itself has offered to provide training for middle-grade officers of developing countries under the UPU Technical Co-operation Scheme. Two middle-grade officers—one from Jordan and the other from Sudan—were given six months training in 1968/69. During 1969/70 two middle-grade officers of the Republic of South Yemen received training at the Training Institute at Karachi. More foreign trainees are expected in the near future.

Philately: Commemorative postage stamps on various occasions of national and international importance are brought out by the Department according to an elaborate programme. Pakistani stamps are gaining popularity abroad, and their sale is increasing year by year. The designing and printing of stamps is carried out by the Pakistan Security Printing Corporation.

Postal Life Insurance: Postal Life Insurance is the biggest Life Insurance Organization in the country. It is open to all members of the public, and is run by the Government as a welfare scheme on a 'no profit no loss' basis, the



Commemorative postage stamps.

main object being to provide life insurance cover to all classes of people, particularly the middle and lower middle income groups and agricultural workers in rural areas, where private insurance companies are reluctant to operate because of high operational costs.

At the time of Independence, there were only 8,893 policies, assured for a total sum of Rs. 15 million; by June 30, 1970, the number of policies in force rose to 149,482, assured for a total sum of Rs. 530 million, of which 125,083 new policies, for a total assured sum of Rs. 442 million, were issued during the Third Plan period. This not only indicates a large and rapid expansion in the number of policies, but also a twofold increase in the average value of policies from Rs. 1,690 at Independence to Rs. 3,540 per policy in the Third Plan period.

During the year 1969/70, 29,869 policies were issued for a total assured

sum of Rs. 130.8 million (giving an average of Rs. 4,360 per policy). During the same year, claims amounting to Rs. 10.3 million were paid to 6,167 claimants, as against Rs. 9 million paid to 5,083 claimants during the preceding year. The majority of the claims were settled within a week of their receipt.

Postal Savings: The Post Office Savings Bank is particularly directed towards providing banking services for people in the lower income bracket, especially in rural areas, making them bank-minded and conscious of the benefits of savings; and it therefore contributes significantly towards mobilizing national savings among lower income groups.

Postal Savings is thus an important agency function performed by this Department on behalf of the Ministry of Finance. All major Post Offices and more than 80 per cent of the village Post Offices provide Savings Bank services. All-night Post-Offices are also allowed to transact Savings Bank business.

The total balance at the credit of the Post Office Savings Bank on June 30, 1970, stood at Rs. 1,640.8 million, the number of Savings Bank accounts having increased from 774,000 at the time of Independence to over 21 million in 1969/70. The net increase in Postal Savings during the Third Plan period is estimated at Rs. 500 million, giving an average annual increase rate of Rs. 100 million.

The rate of profit on ordinary accounts has been increased from 2 per cent in 1959 to 5.5 per cent in 1969; and on Fixed Deposits, from 2.5/3.5 per cent in 1959 to 5.75/7 per cent in 1969.

National Defence Savings Certificates (NDSC) can also be purchased from Post Offices, and on 10-year NDSCs, investors may now nominate their heirs to receive proceeds of these Certificates in case of their demise. Sales and encashment of Prize Bonds is another service rendered by Post Offices in the field of National Savings.

Postal Revenues: Total postal revenues have increased from Rs. 55.16 million in 1959/60 to Rs. 82.1 million in 1964/65 and to an estimated Rs. 132.36 million in 1969/70, showing an increase of 49 per cent over the Second Plan period and 61.3 per cent over the Third Plan period. Furthermore, while surplus revenues declined by over 334 per cent in the former period from a surplus of Rs. 8,25,000 in 1959/60 to a deficit of Rs. 1,932,000 in 1964/65, in the latter period they rose by over 404 per cent to a surplus of Rs. 5,876,000 in 1969/70.

Telecommunications: The administration of telecommunications in Pakistan is the responsibility of the Telegraph and Telephone Department at Karachi, which has zonal offices in Karachi, Lahore and Dacca.

The telecommunication network at the time of Independence was in bad shape and needed complete overhaul and rapid expansion to meet the needs of the country. Progress until 1959 was slow, but since then considerable improvement has taken place. Pakistan is now connected with many major cities in the world through telegraph and telephone lines and teleprinters.

Automatic exchanges have gradually replaced manually operated exchanges. Internally, long distance calls between important cities can be made through direct dialling as well as through the manual trunk exchanges. A telephone factory at Haripur, in the Hazara District, manufactures telephone exchange equipment and trunk boards as well as telephones. Telephones in use numbered 199,000 at the end of June 1970, showing an increase of 11,000 in one year.

In West Pakistan, exchanges were expanded at Quetta, Lahore, Sialkot, Islamabad, Sheikhupura, Gujrat, Mardan. Abbotabad, Kohat, Latifabad (Hyderabad) and Muzaffarabad; and in East Pakistan at Dacca, Patuakhali, Natore, Cox's Bazar, Jessore and Rangpur. Out of 24 new exchanges established in 1969/70, 15 were set up in West Pakistan and 9 in East Pakistan. In addition, seven large private automatic exchanges, with a total capacity of 1,500 lines, were installed during the same period.

Long Distance Service : The long-distance trunk network has been expanded to keep pace with the increasing demands of trunk traffic. In 1969/70, 66 additional trunk positions were provided by opening new trunk exchanges or expanding existing exchanges in the country. Multichannel open-wire carrier systems were also installed or expanded on the Multan-Khanewal, Maro-Nawabshah, Sukkur-Jacobabad and Dacca-Narsinghdi routes.

In East Pakistan, work is also in progress on a 960-channel microwave system, while, on the Dacca-Chittagong route 180 and on the Dacca-Khulna route 84 channels have been completed.

Rural Areas : Expansion and consolidation of telecommunication in rural areas is beginning to receive more attention. During the year 1969/70, 20 public call offices (long distance) were opened, of which 10 are situated in East Pakistan and 10 in West Pakistan.

Inter-Wing Services : The existing 12-channel high frequency radio telephone link between East and West is being expanded to 24; and a project for communication *via* a satellite over the Indian Ocean has been taken in hand. When completed, this will provide 40 new channels.

International Services : In 1969/70, telex services were established between Pakistan, Jordan and Cyprus *via* Rome, and Pakistan and Indonesia *via* Hong Kong. In addition, the 30-line telex at Dacca has been converted to handle 100 lines.

Telegraphic Services : There are 1,241 Telegraph Offices in the country, which handle over 15,000 messages every day. The Telegraph channel mileage at the end of June 1969 stood at 189,700, showing an increase of 17,400 miles in one year. Automatic telegraph exchanges exist or are in the process of being set up at Dacca, Kushtia, Karachi, Lahore, Rawalpindi and Sukkur. (For information on radio and television see separate chapter on these subjects.)

Manufacturing Facilities: Construction work for a cable factory at Khulna and an additional telephone factory at Dacca has been completed, and the installation of machinery is nearing completion. Expansion of the existing telephone factory at Haripur and extension of production facilities for teleprinter machines is also under way.

On the implementation of these schemes, the over-all annual production of equipment will be as follows :

1.	Telephone exchange equipment (EMD)	60,000	lines
2.	Private branch exchange	18,000	
3.	Telephone instruments	110,000	
4.	12-Channel carrier system	40	terminals
5.	Channel modulators	1,000	
6.	Voice-frequency (VF) telegraph channel ends	500	
7.	Teleprinter machines	1,000	
8.	Cable conductor	140,000	miles

To meet the growing demand for telegraph poles and associated accessories, expansion of the Departmental Workshops at Kotri and Dacca is in progress. On completion, these Workshops will be able to produce about 100,000 poles a year, with associated accessories.

Rural Works Programme

Despite initial delays and later stoppages in the disbursement of funds allocated to it, the Rural Works Programme has made steady progress in the Plan period, particularly in East Pakistan. By the end of June 1970, it is estimated that, against the Plan allocations of Rs. 1,200 million for East Pakistan, Rs. 600 million for West Pakistan and Rs. 20 million for the Centre (Northern areas and Azad Kashmir), corresponding expenditures amounted to Rs. 840 million, Rs. 280 million and Rs. 16 million.

To be meaningful, the ultimate purpose of economic development must be to improve the living conditions of the people, particularly at income levels where living is little more than bare existence. In Pakistan, where the vast majority of the people live in villages—some 65,000 in the West and 37,000 in the East—this objective implies extending the benefits of modern science, technology and socio-economic organization to rural areas so as to secure an expanding and increasingly effective participation in economic development from rural communities—in terms of individual as well as corporate effort. The task is basically one of priming, encouraging and supporting a growing self-help effort in village communities.

One particularly important aspect of this situation is the harnessing of underemployed manpower—i.e. the villagers who are seasonally unemployed or are engaged in only part-time or largely unproductive work. And since capital is scarce, limiting the development of employment through capital intensive enterprises, at least the interim need of development must be to employ the maximum number of underemployed villagers with a minimum investment of capital—especially of its most scarce component, foreign exchange.

The Rural Works Programme aims at precisely this objective by

supplementing the country's centralized development programme with locally organized rural projects which, on a labour-intensive basis, play a significant role in reducing wide-spread underemployment by providing jobs on the spot.

It injects capital into the rural economy through a fruitful mobilization of local resources and labour, creating improved conditions of life and work by undertaking such projects as link roads, local irrigation, drainage and sanitation, flood protection, bridges and culverts, markets, community centres, schools and health services.

The idea is not new. But in its original form of a Village Agricultural and Industrial Development Programme—popularly known as V-AID—introduced in 1953, it was conceived more in terms of general rural uplift than as a direct means of reducing unemployment and underemployment. During the First Plan, 174 development areas were opened throughout the country (80 in the East and 94 in the West) and two Academies for V-AID were opened at Comilla and Peshawar in 1959, which have been continued and adapted to the needs of the new Programme. This Programme developed out of a small pilot project, launched in 1961 over an area of 100 square miles, in the Comilla District of East Pakistan.

The Comilla project did not form part of the Second Plan V-AID, and was financed by a small allocation of Rs. 100,000 out of the counterpart funds for PL-480 commodity purchases. The project proved to be a big success. In terms of saving crops from flood damage alone, the benefits of the project were estimated at a value of about Rs. 720,000 for the *aus* (spring) crop and Rs. 180,000 for the subsequent *aman* (summer) crop during one year alone.

In view of these encouraging results, the project was incorporated in a regular programme of rural development works; and for 1962/63 an allocation of Rs. 100 million was made to East Pakistan. The next year, the amount was doubled, and West Pakistan also took up the programme with an allocation of Rs. 100 million. Between 1961 and 1965, a total investment of Rs. 650 million was made in the Works Programme. Then when the time came to draw up the Third Five-Year Plan, the Works Programme was made an integral part of the Plan which defined its objectives as follows :

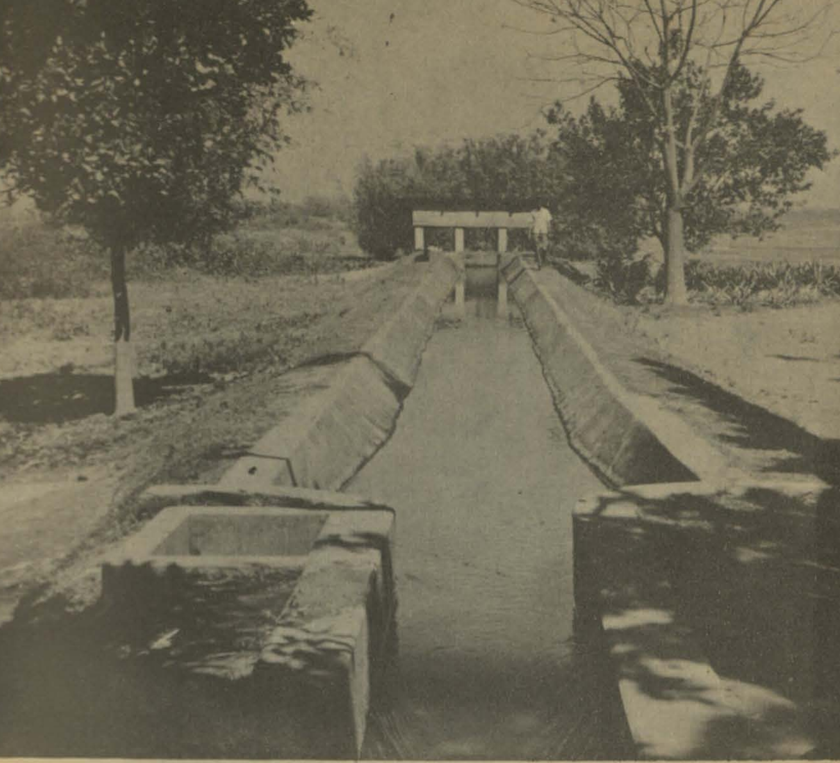
(a) Creation of an infrastructure for the rural economy, such as roads, bridges, irrigation channels, flood protection embankments, and drinking-water facilities in rural areas.

(b) Provision of larger employment opportunities in the villages.

(c) Creation of an effective nucleus of planning and development at the local level, and association of a much larger segment of the population with the country's development effort.

(d) Mobilization of additional monetary and manpower resources for local projects through local taxation by local representative authorities or voluntary contributions in cash, kind or man-hours.

Mode of Operation : In order to encourage local initiative and participation



An irrigation canal built under the Works Programme.

of the largest number of people in the most direct manner and at the most basic level, the planning and execution of the entire programme has been entrusted to local representative authorities in both East and West Pakistan as well as in the Centrally-administered areas of Gilgit, Baltistan and Azad Kashmir. Plans are initiated at the ward level and then approved and consolidated at the next higher level, that is, the Union Committee and thereafter the Tehsil or Thana Committee. In the final stage, they are approved by the District Council, which sanctions the required funds and allots priorities. The District Council may also sponsor its own projects for specific areas, but, ordinarily, maximum autonomy is allowed to the lower levels in the initiation and working of the Programme. At higher levels, the Government confines its interest and direct participation to the barest minimum by way of the regularization of obvious discrepancies, the co-ordination and adjustment of schemes with national planning and priorities, and the evaluation of projects and achievements.

The final execution of approved projects is entrusted to project committees in the specific wards to which the project belongs. All Ward Committees function as project committees of the respective Thana or Union Councils. They mobilize labour, arrange supplies of materials, conduct



A wooden bridge built under the rural works programme.

execution of the work and keep accounts according to a prescribed pattern. At higher levels, District and Municipal Committees function as their own project committees.

In view of the immense size and wide perspective of the Works Programme, its administration and accounting processes were bound to present formidable problems; these are being tackled systematically as they arise. Elaborate procedures have been formulated for the maintenance and checking of accounts and the evaluation of work done. An accounts manual has been devised to systematize accounting and to introduce financial discipline in the conduct of the Programme. A reporting system has also been introduced to enable the Government to keep watch on the progress of works undertaken as part of the Programme. To evaluate the Programme, a high-level Evaluation Committee has been formed which reviews existing procedures and suggests improvements. Another Evaluation and Inspection Team has been constituted to inspect rural works on the spot and report to Government.

Finances : At the end of the Second Plan period, when the Rural Works Programme was attaining its full momentum, unexpected financial strains

were experienced. Financial provisions had therefore to be revised along with the size of the Programme. Yearly allocations for the Programme since its inception are shown in the table below.

Rural Works Programme—Annual Allocations

1962/63—1969/70

(Million rupees)

Year	East Pakistan	West Pakistan	Centre	Total
1962/63	100	—	—	100
1963/64	200	100	—	300
1964/65	150	100	—	250
1965/66	101	86	2	189
1966/67	150	17	3	170
1967/68	183	54	4	241
1968/69*	196	52	3	251
1969/70*	210	71	4	285
Total	1,290	480	16	1,786

Source : Planning Commission. *Estimated.

Road construction under a works project.



Achievements : Financial strains have been partly offset by the fact that the rural economy has been only partially monetized and can take but limited doses of cash capital. This is reflected, not only in the physical targets attained by the programme, but also in the inducement it has provided to the rural population for improving their lot by their own efforts.

East Pakistan : As stipulated by the authors of the Programme, the nature of projects undertaken and completed in different parts of the country varies in accordance with the local conditions and the needs of the people. Thus, in East Pakistan, the projects executed under the Works Programme relate mainly to flood control, communications, irrigation and construction. Major achievements in the period 1965/66-1969/70, are estimated as follows: In the flood-control and irrigation sector, 7,898 miles of embankments were constructed, and 9,400 miles of irrigation and drainage channels dug. On the communications side, 78,930 miles of *kutcha* roads and 4,501 miles of *pucca* roads were built, along with 57,530 bridges and culverts. In the building sector, 8,454 buildings have been set up for Thana Training and Development Centres, Union Community Centres, Town/Municipal Halls and Market Centres. Besides these projects, 3,100 miscellaneous projects, including the reconditioning of derelict tanks and the construction of parks and playgrounds, were completed.

Under the Thana Pilot Irrigation Programme, started in 1966/67 to raise extra crops during the dry winter months, primarily through the organization of village pump groups, 160 pump workshops and 82 storage godowns have been established, and about 30,000 power pumps and 2,100 fractional power pumps have been installed.

Estimated achievements for the single year 1968/69 are : embankments, 648 miles; drainage canals, 715 miles; *kutcha* roads, 10,179 miles; *pucca* roads, 1,083 miles; bridges and culverts, 11,786 : buildings, 692; miscellaneous projects, 1,818; Thana Irrigation Programme, 11,041 power pumps and 2,087 fractional power pumps.

West Pakistan : Major projects executed under the Works Programme in West Pakistan relate to transport and communications, health and sanitation, drainage and irrigation, village education, social welfare and agricultural development. Estimated achievements in the period 1965/66-1969/70 include the following: In the field of communications, 2,303 miles of treated and metalled roads were constructed, and 2,720 miles of *kutcha* roads, together with 296 bridges and 7,745 culverts, were built. In the irrigation and drainage sector, 215 tube-wells and 2,150 open-surface wells or *karezes* were set up. In the public health sector, 667 civil dispensaries were established, 1,885 drains and trenches were completed, and 8,421 handpumps were installed. Under the educational and social welfare programmes, 5,893 village schools and 1,410 community centres have been constructed. In the agricultural field, 329 veterinary dispensaries have been built.

Separate figures for physical achievements in 1968/69 are as follows : metalled roads, 140 miles; treated roads, 107 miles; *kutcha* roads, 278 miles;

bridges, 96; culverts, 1,725; water supply, 991 projects; civil dispensaries, 134 ; drains, 936; tube-wells, 22; open surface wells and *karezes*, 588; school buildings, 1,831; community centres, 359; veterinary dispensaries, 77; food storage godowns, 300; other projects, 205. However, funds made available for 1969/70 were insufficient to meet even the cost of on-going projects.

Central Areas : In Azad Kashmir, 198 miles of vehicular roads, 32 miles of link roads, 56 miles of village paths and pony tracks, and 26 bridges and culverts have been completed. In addition, 510 school buildings were constructed, 236 low-lift pumps and irrigation channels provided 144, buildings for community centres, council halls and offices etc. constructed, and 12 dispensaries established.

In Gilgit and Baltistan, 212 schemes relating to transport and communication facilities were undertaken, including bridle-paths, pony-tracks, foot-bridges and forest feeder roads. Secondly, 161 projects for irrigation and 26 for schools, community buildings and dispensaries were also implemented.



Repairs to a bridge under the rural works programme.

Private Enterprise and Commerce

In the mixed economy of Pakistan, private enterprise continues to play a prominent role in productive activities and handles almost all trade and commerce, so that its share in the total fixed investment during the Third Five-Year Plan amounted to over 49 per cent, estimated at Rs. 20,862 million, as against the public sector investment of Rs. 21,595 million. At first sight, this performance of the private sector suggests a 95 per cent fulfilment of the Plan target for private investment, set at Rs. 22,000; but as indicated below (under 'Private Investment in the Third Plan'), a closer look reveals serious shortcomings and imbalances.

Agricultural production is undertaken entirely by private enterprise, while in industry it contributes the major share of total output and value added. In the service sectors, wholesale and retail trade, banking and insurance are almost exclusively within the province of private enterprise. In import and export trade, the Trading Corporation of Pakistan has recently obtained a small share of the total trade which before was entirely limited to private enterprise. In the case of food-grains, the Government only acts as a moderator of market forces. Chemical fertilizers imported under aid arrangements are handled by Government agencies, but their distribution in West Pakistan is carried out through private enterprise. In Transport and Communications, once almost entirely the responsibility of the public sector, private enterprise has carved out an expanding share for itself in road and inland water transport, while shipping and air transport are now financed and managed by mixed public and private enterprise. The outline of the nature and performance of the private sector given below is largely abstracted from the *Fourth Five-Year Plan, 1970-75*.

In the country's first attempt at modern planning, under the First

Five-Year Plan, both strategy and priorities neglected the private sector—despite duly recognizing its importance—depriving it of both resources and incentives for growth; so that in this Plan period private investment declined in comparison with its progress in the previous five years. In the Second Plan, the Government introduced policies of economic liberalism, freeing the economy from direct administrative controls, and set up a series of attractive incentives, combined with an institutional framework through which the private sector could secure the resources—including sizeable credit, subsidies, protection, and tax concessions—to translate its investment demand into physical investment. This turned the private sector into a dynamic force, producing a very high rate of industrialization; but since, partly as a corollary to the maximization of incentive, no regulatory mechanisms were introduced to ensure basic adequacies in the quality of investment, efficiency in the use of resources and co-ordination of private sector development with social goals, a number of problems were also created for the future. During the Third Plan, as the conflict between the pursuit of the objectives of social welfare and the maintenance of powerful incentives for private enterprise and investment became more pronounced, several policy shifts were made. These were, however, directed mainly against the specific problem of the concentration of wealth and economic power, rather than towards the implementation of a practical strategy to broaden the base of the private sector's sources of saving and investment.

Despite the measures introduced in the Third Plan, given the continuation of the basic framework of incentives and protection, the cost of economic development also continued to rise in terms of maldistribution of income, concentration of ownership and economic power, and growing social tensions. Essentially, the protection of infant industries—which are frequently inefficient—implies that consumers have to pay high prices. Tax concessions to industry mean that others have to bear a larger burden of taxation (largely in the form of indirect taxes). Provision of foreign exchange at low effective rates for industrial investment gives industrialists resources at the cost of agricultural producers of export commodities. In several cases, the profits secured by industrial investors were not profits of productivity but merely a transfer from other sectors of the economy, realized through raised prices. Many of these drawbacks were perhaps justified in the early stages of development, in order to gain an essential momentum; but they are now emerging as an intolerable burden on the rest of society as the size of the industrial sector grows.

Thus concern over the problem of concentration of wealth grew towards the end of the Plan period; and the sensed need to move more quickly to rectify social disadvantages and conflicts was reflected in the Socio-Economic Objectives of the Fourth Plan (see chapter on Development Planning). The process of reform was quickened with the assumption of power by the Martial Law Administration (see chapter on Government), and special policies to regulate labour-management relations and to curb the growth of monopoly power were announced (Also see chapters on Manpower and Social Welfare). Such *ad hoc* measures, however, relate to the excesses

arising from a system that is basically inequitous, while, on the other hand, in some cases the corrective measures may go too far and inhibit the growth of private enterprise and investment—especially among potential new entrants who provide the main hope of creating a broader base and developing a healthy competitive efficiency. The Fourth Plan—whose strategy is outlined below, following the next section regarding the Third Plan—endeavours to provide a practical planned framework for the growth of private enterprise to bring it into greater harmony with requirements of social development.

Planning for the private sector need not involve the kind of detailed planning that is practised in the public sector; but it does imply the management of key inputs in line with set targets, the proper husbanding of credit available for private enterprise, and an effective co-ordination of all the policies which effect the private sector. On the other hand, knowledge about the private sector is only now beginning to become more comprehensive and reliable, as a result of an improved flow of data and data processing. Until this knowledge has been organized as a result of further research and analysis, it is not possible to do more than conceive of the broad framework of a plan for the private sector. Till recently, even the total magnitude of private fixed investment had been derived indirectly from available data on the use of cement, steel and machinery. It is only in the last two years that the Central Statistical Office (CSO) has completed a study of physical investment in the economy, giving a sectoral breakdown of investment in the public and private sectors. Sectoral figures so obtained still leave much to be desired, and need to be reviewed in the light of information regarding physical inputs and financial flows. This work is under way. In the mean time, investment in inventories remain unmeasured, and the saving rates are difficult to determine. While a flow-of-funds analysis was carried out in 1967/68 by the State Bank in collaboration with the CSO and the Planning Commission—and this provided useful data for understanding the financing mechanism of the private sector—such study needs to be carried out on a continuous basis to reveal the movement of different elements. The picture of the financial structure of private investment in the manufacturing sector is becoming clearer as a result of work done by various financial institutions; but very little information is available on other areas, where the bulk of financial resources presumably consists of 'own retained earnings'

Private Investment in the Third Plan : The targets for private investment in the Third Plan were set in the light of the Second Plan experience. Against a target of Rs. 8,380 million, actual private investment during the Second Plan period amounted to Rs. 13,680 million in current prices, showing an over-fulfilment of 63 per cent and a tripling of private investment from its base in 1959/60. For the Third Plan, the private investment target was fixed at Rs. 22,000 million in a total planned investment of Rs. 52,000 million. The share of the private sector thus was 42 per cent in comparison with 44 per cent in the Second Plan. The annual rate of acceleration in the level of private investment assumed for the realization of this target was 11 per cent. Estimating the private investment figure for 1964/65, at Rs. 3,181 million, it set

the target for 1969/70 at Rs. 5,200 million. The sector-wise distribution of investment targets indicated that 38 per cent of total private investment was to be in the manufacturing sector and roughly 18 per cent each in agriculture, in transport and communications, and in Housing. A specific target was to raise the level of private investment in East Pakistan, so that over the total Plan period it would equal that in West Pakistan, giving a target of Rs. 11,000 million for each of these two regions of the country.

Subsequent studies have shown that the level of private fixed investment in 1964/65 was in fact significantly higher than the Third Plan estimate of Rs. 3,181 million. This estimate was raised to Rs. 3,440 million in the *Final Evaluation of the Second Plan*, and later, after further study and evaluation by CSO, to Rs. 4,198 million. On the basis of the acceleration implicit in the Third Plan target for private investment, the revised benchmark of Rs. 4,198 million for 1964/65 would have resulted in a total private investment target of Rs. 28,500 million. Against this notional target, the actual private fixed investment during the Third Plan period shows a shortfall of about 27 per cent (according to the earlier estimate of private investment in the Fourth Plan, set at Rs. 21,516 million, instead of the later reduced figure of Rs. 20,862 million, the shortfall percentage amounts to 24 per cent). In any case, growth in private investment, as indicated in Table I, has at best been slow; and as economic indicators point to a price increase of more than 24 per cent over the Plan period, these figures imply a substantial deceleration in real private investment—private fixed investment declining as a percentage of GNP at current market prices from 8.6 per cent to 5.5 or 4.6 per cent (taking GNP at factor cost naturally gives slightly higher percentages as shown in Table I), depending respectively on whether the Fourth Plan estimate of an investment of Rs. 4,300 million in 1969/70 is taken or a revised estimate of Rs. 3,646 million. In either case, there is a significant decline in the last two years of the Plan, which in part is obviously due to unsettled conditions in the country, both socially and politically.

The Sectoral distribution of private investment in the Plan period indicates that annual investment in agriculture was basically unchanged in current prices, fluctuating from Rs. 455 million in 1965/66 to Rs. 539 million 1968/69; in industry (large and small-scale), the increase was roughly in line with the increase in prices, from Rs. 1,743 million in 1964/65 to Rs. 1,993 million in 1968/69—and over the same four years, in transport and communications there was a substantial decline from Rs. 622 million in 1964/65 to Rs. 495 million in 1968/69; in mining and quarrying, an already small investment of Rs. 17.3 million was further reduced to Rs. 9.2 million; in banking, insurance and other institutions, investment declined from Rs. 46 million to 40.3 million; in services, there was a steady, if not large, increase in investment from Rs. 354 million to Rs. 445 million; and only in housing and construction was there a substantial as well as constant rise in investment from Rs. 667 million to Rs. 785 million, though this mainly went into luxury housing, and therefore was not in line with the physical targets in this sector. (Figures for 1968/69 rather than 1969/70 have been given, as revised estimates for the latter were not available at the time of printing). The over-all trends these

figures—which must be viewed as rough indicators rather than exact statistics—suggest are in accord with the general movement of the economy.

Thus major reasons for the failure to realize the acceleration planned for private investment in manufacturing—its biggest field of action—included the following factors: a large portion of available credit was pre-empted by the public sector because of revised priorities; there were shortfalls in foreign assistance and additional resources were diverted to defence; unutilized capacity emerged or increased in some industries due to shortages of imported raw materials; and the investment climate in general also deteriorated. In addition, throughout this period, anomalies in fiscal and commercial policies and unnecessary bereaucratic restrictions and procedures continued to discourage the dynamic growth of private industry—for example, till 1969 the duty on machinery was lower than on raw materials for capital goods; raw material imports were put on bonus and cash-cum-bonus without corresponding adjustments in the imports of finished goods, which led to an underutilization of existing industrial capacity and a consequent dimunition of incentive for new investment. Similarly, restrictions on the import of trucks and their components was largely responsible for the reduced investment in the transport sector, and this, in turn, was the result of the shortfall in non-project international assistance, which was therefore largely used up for essential imports of fertilizer and other agricultural inputs.

But the biggest shortcoming of performance in the private sector lies in the big imbalance in the regional distribution of its investment. In part this might have been expected, as the Third Plan had started with the erroneous assumption that East Pakistan was already sharing one-third of total private investment in the country at the end of the Second Plan period, whereas later estimiates showed that this share in fact amounted to no more than 23 per cent. To raise this share to 50 per cent by the *end* of the Plan period would in itself have been a difficult enough proposition; but to aim at equalizing investment over the Plan period *as a whole* proved to be totally unrealistic As if this had not been enough, policy adjustments providing incentives in favour of East Pakistan, which were urgently needed right from the start in accordance with the ambitious aim, were delayed by the armed conflict with India in 1965 and the subsequent disruption of aid flows.

With these handicaps and other factors retarding the growth of private investment in East Pakistan, this in fact amounted to only Rs. 5,443.4 million, as against the almost threefold larger private investment of Rs. 15,248.6 million in West Pakistan. As shown in the Table below, the disparity between private investment in the two regions thus declined just nominally, East Pakistan's share of total investment moving only from 23 to 26 per cent. On the other hand, in absolute figures the growth of private investment in East Pakistan has been continuous, if somewhat slower in the last two years, from Rs. 945.6 million in 1965/66 to an estimated Rs. 1,200 million in 1969/70, and its total private investment in the Third Plan period represented an increase of 70 per cent on the corresponding investment of about Rs. 3,136 million in the Second Plan period. In contrast, West

Pakistan's private investment slowed down far more noticeably in the last two years, and is estimated to have declined in the last year, while its total investment in the Third Plan period exceeded that of the Second Plan period, of about Rs. 10,544 million, by only 46 per cent.

Private Fixed Investment by Regions in Current Prices

(Million rupees)

Year	East Pakistan	West Pakistan	Total	Percentage	
				EP	WP
1965/66	945.6	3,033.4	3,979	24	76
1966/67	1,033.3	3,169.7	4,203	24	76
1967/68	1,111.2	3,360.8	4,472	25	75
1968/69 (Provisional)	1,153.3	3,408.7	4,562	25.5	74.5
1969/70 (Estimate)	1,200.0	2,446.0	3,646	33	67
Total 1965-70	5,443.4	15,418.6	20,862	26	74

Source : Planning Commission.

Two Committees were set up (one by the Central Investment Promotion and Co-ordination Committee (CIPCOC) and one by the National Assembly) to determine the causes of the slow rate of capital formation in East Pakistan and to recommend measures to overcome them and improve the situation. The House Committee Report (which also drew upon the recommendations of the CIPCOC) was nearing finalization in 1969, when the turn of events in the political field changed the entire outlook.

Some new measures were nevertheless undertaken to encourage larger private investment in East Pakistan during the Plan period, including longer tax holidays and lower rates of duty on capital goods, and the Budget for 1969/70 strengthened these measures. Even more powerful was the Government directive to financial institutions to start with a notional allocation of loans on the basis of 50 per cent for East Pakistan. PICIC and IDBP have followed aggressive policies and reported considerable improvement in the ratio of loans sanctioned for East Pakistan. Furthermore, since it was felt that a major cause of the slow growth of private capital in East Pakistan

was the existence of an equity gap, an Equity Participation Fund was set up by the Government in January 1970 to help fill this gap for new entrants in the industrial field, with particular reference to East Pakistan and promoting the utilization of PICIC and IDBP loans there. All these were hopeful signs for the future, but unfortunate political events in the spring of 1971 (See chapter on Government) have brought in new complications for the climate of private investment, which it will require great care and perseverence to overcome.

Fourth Plan Strategy for the Private Sector : Recently the question of the nationalization of industries has received increasing attention. This has partly been due to the widespread resentment at the concentration of industrial incomes (incidentally regional as well as personal); and the question can of course not be divorced from the political framework that the country ultimately chooses, and must in this respect be left open. However, economic considerations as such must make one pause before advocating a wholesale nationalization of industries and other productive institutions. In the last two decades by far the greater proportion of industrial development in the private sector has been in the field of consumer goods; and if past experience is any guide, they may be difficult to operate efficiently in the public sector. There would be little national gain if the profitability of private industries were replaced by the inefficiency of public management. It would seem to be a much more realistic economic policy to tax away a reasonable proportion of the profits of these industries and utilize these for public services and social welfare.

However, as the country is now entering the phase of expanding its small base of a capital goods industry and more and more fairly big industries are likely to be set up with sizeable capital and sophisticated technology, and with a major impact on the rest of the economy, a new dimension is added to the direction of future progress—which in another decade will probably increase the share of the industrial sector in the economy from around 12 per cent in 1969/70 to 25 per cent in 1979/80. The installation and management of at least some of these basic industries can probably not be left to, or turned over to, the private sector. A new industrial policy must be devised which clearly spells out which industry must be reserved for the public sector, which can be developed by both the public and the private sector, and which might develop exclusively in the private sector without the fear of public intervention. The present industrial policy offers only a negative list of industries, prohibiting a few industries, like ordnance factories, for the private sector, while leaving decisions on the majority of the rest open to the merits of each individual case. It is already clear that the public sector will have to play a growing role in the establishment of industries in the Fourth Plan period and beyond. While so far the public sector has been responsible for about one-third of total industrial investment, this proportion will increase in future because of the complex nature of industries, the demands for regional development, and the climate of public opinion.

A most urgent need of the moment therefore is to build in a tradition

of efficiency into the public sector, as inefficiency here, both because of the larger size of the operation and of the chain reaction of red tape, must be far more costly and disastrous than inefficiency in the smaller industries of the private sector. The major pre-requisite for such efficiency is to make the public sector industries accountable to the legislature and responsive to the general needs of the people. Public Corporations should, however, be allowed the flexibility of autonomous management that permits the maintenance and promotion of a sound commercial operation. For this, it is also essential to train and build up a corps of appropriately qualified and experienced professional managers to man and direct these operations.

In order to tackle the fundamental issues and conflicts in economic and social development, the Government must evolve an integrated programme aimed at ensuring social justice, eliminating the abuses of the present economic system, and mobilizing the resources required for both economic development and social welfare. "Such a programme", says the Fourth Plan, "must be defined not only to restore the momentum of the economy, but to eliminate the abuses which led to a near revolution in the country, and to establish a sound basis of future relationships between the Government and the business community, on the one hand, and among the employer, the labourer and the consumer, on the other. This programme should define the *new rules of the game* in the private sector, which, while reserving a viable role for private enterprise in a mixed system, establishes the ascendancy of the Government in the economic sphere, decreases the concentration of private wealth and economic power, encourages fair competition within the private sector, ensures greater opportunity for newcomers, provides equitable treatment for workers and consumers alike, and seeks from the business community resources for social purposes commensurate with their ability to pay and the large benefits received by them in the past. The private sector must recognize and accept that, in the changed circumstances, the Government has to assume a larger role in economic activity, particularly in the social sectors. The extent to which the Government will have to assume this role depends largely on how far the private sector discharges its social responsibilities."

Recognizing that, on the one hand, an aggressive and dynamic private sector developed over the years is quick to respond to profit incentives and capable of setting up and running large industrial business and service enterprises and that, on the other, the nation as a whole is not prepared to subsidize and protect inefficient industries merely for the sake of industrialization, the Fourth Plan concludes that "efficiency and competition should be the keynote of the Fourth Plan strategy for the private sector... Profits of protection should be replaced by profits of efficiency." If the size of profits is relatively small as a result of this, and expansion based on this source slows down, this is regarded as a necessary cost of more balanced development in the country.

Furthermore, the process of expansion through re-investment of profits inevitably results in a concentration of ownership and wealth. While this may be regarded as having been acceptable in the early phase of industriali-

zation, the Plan proposes that this should now be supplemented increasingly by the development of a capital market that would channel household and institutional savings to potential investors, in the form of both equities and loans. The institutional framework of the capital market has been strengthened considerably during the Third Plan, through such new institutions as NIT, ICP and the Equity Fund, and their further progress and development is to be strongly supported through the implementation of appropriate fiscal and other policies.

Finally, the new strategy seeks to envolve a stronger positive approach to the question of regional balances in private investment, not only with regard to East Pakistan, but also in connection with the less developed areas of West Pakistan. In the special case of East Pakistan, major new difficulties have to be overcome to attract reinvestible earnings, largely available with entrepreneurs based in West Pakistan, through differential incentive mechanisms—particularly as "this is the only sure way of rapidly accelerating private investment in East Pakistan" On the other hand, in East Pakistan the recent violent eruption of social tensions, which are bound to arise in any society where the management and capital are not integrated within the local set up, has given added urgency to the need to devise a policy which would assure the participation of East Pakistan in both management and share-ownership. "A personnel policy which seeks to employ local talent in key managerial jobs, even when it is not considered ideal on narrower efficiency criteria, would", the Plan advocates, "be a highly significant factor bringing about political acceptance of inter-wing capital movement." The development of a professional managerial cadre for the now increasingly complex industrial development is, as indicated before, desirable in any case, but for inter-provincial movement of private capital, the Plan stresses, "it is absolutely essential."

At the same time, more and more effective efforts must be made to promote the development of sources of capital formation within East Pakistan. For this, incentives of profitability must be backed up by availability of adequate resources to turn investment demand into actual physical investment; so that the most important element in building up a growing number of local entrepreneurs will be the availability of credit and equity support. Specialized credit institutions are now already functioning on a separate budget for East Pakistan, with their total funds being notionally divided between the two wings of the country. And it is largely to support small entrepreneurs in East Pakistan by supplying adequate equity capital that the Equity Fund was set up in the last year of the Third Plan. At present, IDBP is also willing to go up to a 60 per cent ratio for loans, requiring only a 40 per cent equity. If 50 per cent of the equity capital can be obtained by sale on the market, underwriting by ICP and/or participation by the Equity Fund, the entrepreneur is required to have a stake in his own enterprise to the extent of at least 20 per cent, as an essential minimum to ensure that he takes a sufficiently keen interest in making a success of the venture.

The Plan, however, again stresses that it must be clearly realized that if a less developed region seeks to develop private investment largely from its own resources, this is bound to be a slow process, even with the above

measures—unless one is prepared to leave the entrepreneur entirely free to exploit the consumer! "A healthy growth of private investment in any less developed Province would have to include an element of imported capital." And the attitude to such capital will be a decisive factor in speeding up the development of less developed areas in the West as well as the East of the country.

In connection with the 'rules of the game' that are to operate within the over-all strategy for the private sector, the Plan proposes the following basic measures to define the framework for a healthy and balanced growth of private enterprise in line with national objectives : "(a) progressive taxation of higher incomes and large concentrations of wealth; (b) improvement of the legal framework for companies and public accountability of directors; (c) avoidance and regulation of monopolistic powers; (d) protection of labour."

(a) *Tax Policy* : With an effectively administered policy of progressive income and wealth taxes, combined with death duties and Islamic laws of inheritance, much can be done to achieve a more equitable distribution of wealth. In fact, a highly progressive taxation has been in operation for quite some time. The problem is that the *collection* of these taxes has not been commensurate with the growth of private wealth, partly due to the deliberate grant of concessions, partly to loopholes in the Income Tax Law (which was basically framed half a century ago in the context of an entirely different society)—but partly also because of considerable illegal evasion. Declarations of tax-evaded wealth in both 1958 and 1969 support the contension that evasion is practised on a large scale. A new income tax law is being framed to become effective early in the Fourth Plan period, but this will have to be accompanied by a strengthening of the tax-collecting machinery.

(b) *Company Law and Managing Agency System* : The Board of Directors should be obliged to behave as trustees on behalf of all the shareholders and be accountable for their actions. The Report of the Company Law Commission, which proposes a thorough revision of the current legislation dating back to 1913, the Plan urges, should be implemented as early as possible.

The Managing Agency system, which has been a unique feature of business organization in the Indo-Pakistan Subcontinent, and gives a small group of sponsoring investors a strong hold on the affairs of a public company, is decried as having long outlived its utility and being an important factor aggravating the problem of concentration of wealth and power. Such a system needs to be abolished and replaced by a professional management fully responsible to the shareholders as well as a representative Board of Directors.

(c) *Anti-Cartel and Monopoly Legislation* : The above-mentioned checks still leave the problems of monopolies, inter-locking directorates, vertical and horizontal integration and cartels. In developing countries, where the size of the market is small in relation to the minimum size of an economic unit, only one or two units may be justified at the outset. But some checks have to be exercised by the Government to curb such monopoly powers, in

order to protect the consumer and other sectors of society likely to be affected by them, and also to allow opportunities for newcomers when further units may be justified. A draft law entitled Monopolies and Unfair Trade Practices (Control and Prevention) Ordinance, 1969, was published by the Government on June 28, 1969, to elicit public opinion. This Law, modified in the light of comments received, was promulgated in January 1970.

(d) *Labour Policy* : The most important relationship in the private sector is that between the employer and the worker, and in a labour surplus economy like that of Pakistan, workers are inherently at a disadvantage in bargaining with employers. On the other hand, it is, nevertheless, possible for particular sections of organized labour to force wage increases in excess of improvement in productivity. To define an institutional framework to cover both aspects of the situation, a new wage policy was announced in July 1969 (see chapter on Manpower).

These guidelines regulating the relationships of private enterprise might be feared to be so restrictive as to slow down the pace of fresh investment. This may indeed be the initial result, but they are in line with the solutions that other countries have successfully sought for similar problems. From the long-term point of view, no sector of the economy can maintain its growth at the expense and/or alienation and antagonism of another sector.

Foreign Private Investment : In the context of the growing complexity and advanced technology involved in industrialization now under way in such fields as engineering and capital goods, foreign private capital inflow has particular relevance, because it will prove to be a very helpful vehicle for the introduction of advanced management and technology to Pakistan, provided that an appropriate national policy for its guidance is maintained.

Foreign private investment during the Third Plan is estimated to have fallen short of its target of Rs. 700 million by 33 per cent, amounting to a gross investment total of about Rs. 529 million, which forms less than 5 per cent of total external aid. The Fourth Plan retains the Third Plan target, which, within its context of anticipated international aid, amounts to 4 per cent of this total.

In fact, in recent years the impact of net foreign private investment on the balance of payments has been negative, in that the remittance of profits and dividends has been higher than the inflow of resources. Detailed studies are being undertaken to examine appropriate policy measures to counteract this situation, as well as to secure a larger quantum of foreign private investment, which, according to the Fourth Plan. "in principle, should be encouraged in selected areas, particularly where new technology and modern management is involved." (Also see section on Foreign Investors in chapter on Industry.)

Department of Investment Promotion : Established in 1959, this Department disseminates information regarding investment opportunities and conditions in Pakistan, and offers advice to interested investors, both local

and foreign.

All proposals for the setting up of industries involving foreign investment or foreign private loans must be approved by the Central Investment Promotion and Co-ordination Committee and must be within the framework of investment schedules. Normally decisions are taken within 6 to 12 weeks from first submission of the investment proposals on prescribed forms.

All foreign firms and individuals intending to start commercial and professional business in Pakistan are also required to obtain prior permission from the Investment Department. Similarly, permission is also to be obtained before any foreign national can enter into partnership with a Pakistani national for the purpose of doing business in Pakistan.

In Karachi, the Overseas Investors' Chamber of Commerce and Industry exists specifically as the representative trade association for foreign business in West Pakistan. In East Pakistan, the corresponding institution is the Agrabad Chamber of Commerc and Industry, Chittagong.

Trade Organization : The country now has some 75 major trade organizations, including 17 Chambers of Commerce and Industry.

All trade bodies are governed by the Trade Organization Ordinance, 1960, promulgated by the Central Government to streamline their working and to avoid a multiplicity of rival trade associations. One of the objects was to bring private entrepreneurs on to a common platform, so that close liaison between trade organizations and Government could be established in the interest of economic development. For this latter purpose, these trade organizations are asked to nominate their members to various advisory councils for import and export to represent their point of view.

The country's supreme trade body is the *Federation of Pakistan Chambers of Commerce and Industry* with its head office in Karachi and with zonal offices at Lahore and Dacca.

The Federation represents, at home and abroad, the interests of private enterprise in almost all fields. Its principal objects are :

(i) To aid and stimulate the development of trade, commerce, agriculture, industry and transport in Pakistan.

(ii) To promote and safeguard business in which Pakistanis and other nationals in Pakistan are engaged or interested in matters of inland and foreign trade, agriculture, transport industry, manufacture, finance and all other economic activities, or to encourage banking, insurance and shipping.

(iii) To promote friendly relationships and unanimity of purpose among the various chambers of commerce and industry and industrial associations in Pakistan and to help co-ordination among them and their counterparts in other countries of the world.

(iv) To secure organized action, direct or indirect, on all subjects mentioned above.

The management of the business of the Federation is vested in a 30-man Managing Committee. The President is elected by the general body

at the annual general meeting through secret ballot. Seven chambers, three 'A' class associations and one 'B' class association from East Pakistan are now represented in the Managing Committee.

The Federation also has three Zonal Committees headed by its Vice-Presidents in East and West Pakistan. The Committees consist of :

(i) Two representatives of the member body styled as Chamber of Commerce and Industry, one representing trade and the other industry.

(ii) One representative from each of the member bodies styled as 'A' class associations of trade and/or industry.

RCD Chamber of Commerce : The RCD Chamber of Commerce and Industry aims at fostering and developing intra-regional trade, promotion of investment opportunities within the RCD countries, promotion of co-operation between the RCD Chamber, on the one hand, and other international business, industrial and economic organizations, on the other.

The Chamber ascertains and represents the views of the private sector in the member countries on all economic matters affecting their common interests, particularly in the field of commerce, industry, transportation, finance and services, and promotes commercial and industrial collaboration between various enterprises in the member countries. It also assists in initiating negotiations between interested parties for joint ventures.

The membership of the RCD Chamber consists of representatives from each member country, as follows :

1. *Iran* : The Tehran Chamber of Commerce, the Iran Chamber of Industries and Mines ;

2. *Pakistan* : The Federation of Pakistan Chambers of Commerce and Industry.

3. *Turkey* : The Union of Chambers of Commerce, Industry and Commodity Exchanges of Turkey.

The Pakistan National Committee of the International Chamber of Commerce : With its office in Karachi, this Chamber has the following objects :

(a) to facilitate the commercial intercourse of countries and secure harmony of action on all international questions affecting finance, industry and commerce;

(b) to elect the representatives of the National Committee on the Council of the International Chamber; and

(c) to ensure the proper representation of commercial, industrial, financial, shipping and trading interests of Pakistan in the organization and work of the International Chamber.

Inter-Zonal Trade : Following a decline in the volume of trade between East and West Pakistan in 1967/68—due to the local output of manufactured goods which were formerly imported to East Pakistan from West Pakistan—this reached a record level of Rs. 2,255.7 million in the following year, rising by 11.8 per cent in one year. Then in 1969/70 it again increased by over

12.5 per cent. In addition to the figures for the five Plan years given below, is also interesting to note that currently a significantly greater proportion of exports from East to West consists of manufactured or semi-manufactured goods in comparison with exports from West to East. In 1969/70 (largely repeating the proportions of the previous year), including tea, 72.7 per cent of the East to West exports consisted of manufactured goods, and excluding it, to over 47 per cent. In absolute figures, out of a total export valued at Rs. 923.4 million, the biggest item was tea, at Rs. 243.3 million, followed by other manufactured goods valued at Rs. 428.4 million. The latter goods consisted of 16 main items, headed by the following four : jute manufactures, Rs. 145.5 million; paper and paper-board, Rs. 109.1 million ; textiles, Rs. 64.6 million; matches, Rs. 44.8 million. In the same period, about 43 per cent of the West to East exports consisted of manufactured goods, including re-exports. In absolute figures, out of a total export valued at Rs. 1,666.2 million, the biggest single item consisted of cotton textiles and other cotton manufactures, valued at Rs. 328.8 million; but taking all types of food-stuffs, including spices, edible oil and oil seeds (but not sugar and molasses), this total item was the largest, valued at Rs. 484.8 million. Manufactured exports comprised 23 main items, whose total value amounted to Rs. 670.6 million, and which, after cotton manufactures, were headed by the following six items: machinery and mill work, Rs. 64.7 million ; drugs and medicines Rs. 53.9 million; cement, Rs. 48.9 million; tobacco manufactures, Rs. 41.5 million; paper and paper-board, Rs. 29.6 million; rubber manufactures, Rs. 22.7 million. Among raw materials exported, after food-stuffs, the following two items led the field: raw cotton, Rs. 166.1 million, and unmanufactured tobacco, Rs. 102.8 million.

Inter-Zonal Trade (Seaborne)

1964/65—1969/70

(Million rupees)

Year (July-June)	Exports from East to West Pakistan	Exports from West to East Pakistan	Total
1964/65	537.1	874.5	1,411.6
1965/66	651.8	1,208.6	1,860.4
1966/67	738.9	1,324.8	2,063.7
1967/68	784.7	1,233.2	2,017.9
1968/69	870.5	1,385.2	2,255.7
1969/70	923.3	1,666.2	2,589.6

Source : CSO, *Monthly Statistical Bulletin.*

Prices: The situation arising put of the Indo-Pak conflict of 1965 and the consequent slowing down of foreign economic assistance put a stringent limit on imports. In addition, the import of a large number of items under the Bonus Scheme had its effect on the prices of imported manufactured goods and raw materials, thereby increasing the prices of domestic manufactured goods as well. Restricted imports and reduced availability of foreign commodity assistance also resulted in a shortage of raw materials, thus adversely affecting industrial output. At the same time, measures to step up exports reduced the domestic availability of certain goods, thus again increasing the prices of those goods. Increase in taxation, necessitated by a greater mobilization of domestic resources to compensate for the reduction in foreign aid and to meet the rising cost of defence, also pushed up prices, as did the increase in the prices of certain public utilities, including railway fares, and postal and telephone charges. Then country-wide industrial unrest between November 1968 and March 1969 had its impact on the underutilization of capacity. More recently, the general increase in wage levels, following the recommendations of the new labour policy, raised prices both through these costs being passed on to the consumer and through the increased effective demand for a large number of consumer items, especially food.

There was thus a steep increase in prices between May and September 1969, followed by a declining trend from October 1969 to February 1970, after which there came another spiralling of prices reaching a high point in the general wholesale price index (Base 1959/60—100) in November/December 1970 at 151.3 in East Pakistan and 139.1 in West Pakistan, but declining to 141.5 and 138.2; respectively, in January 1971. The rise in the general index up to September 1969—indicating an increase of 11.3 per cent over April 1969—was largely attributed to an increase in food and raw material prices, whose sub-indices increased by 14.8 per cent and 3 per cent, respectively. The increase was more pronounced in East Pakistan where the index rose sharply by 14.8 per cent, due mainly to the rise in food prices by 18.6 per cent. Between February and November 1970 the increase amounted to about 8.0 per cent, with a more pronounced increase of 11.3 per cent in East Pakistan. Then by January 1971, the general wholesale price index was back to its average for 1969/70.

Over the Third Plan period as a whole, the price situation deteriorated considerably in comparison with the same period of the Second Plan, particularly in East Pakistan: compared with an increase of 11.3 per cent in East Pakistan and 13.5 per cent in West Pakistan during the Second Plan period, the increases during the Third Plan period amounted to 31.1 per cent and 15.6 per cent, respectively.

The Government took various measures to curb the rising price trend and stabilize prices at a reasonable level, which primarily aimed at providing relief to the common man. In October 1965, it set up a Price Stabilization Wing in the Industries Division, of the Ministry of Industries and Natural Resources, with the responsibility of keeping the price situation under constant watch, of promptly analysing the causes of abrupt and undue price fluctuations, and of suggesting timely corrective measures to both Central and Provincial

Governments. Two years later, it established a Price Stabilization Board, with a Price Review Committee working to feed the Board with material and to make recommendations to it, and the Price Stabilization Wing functioning as the Secretariat for both Board and Committee. The Board works as a Central body in co-operation with other relevant Government agencies. In June, 1969, the Government appointed an Experts' Committee of Economists on Prices to recommend, among others, measures to keep down the cost of living and reduce the prices of essential articles of consumption. It may be recalled here that 10 years earlier the Government had also established a Price Commission to review the entire price situation in the country and to suggest measures for price stabilization, and this Commission submitted its report in June 1960, which among its large number of recommendations included the following : to keep the money supply in check; to relax the utilization of foreign exchange reserves especially for essential consumer goods; to liberalize the import of essential raw materials and spare parts for competitive and selective industries; to remove price controls gradually and systematically; and to increase industrial and agricultnral production.

On the recommendations of the Committee established in June 1969, the Governors' Conference held in October 1969 adopted a number of measures which included the import of 1.5 million tons of food-grains to East Pakistan from West Pakistan and abroad; the import of 170,000 tons of edible oil; a ban on the export of pulses from the country; and the provision of further incentives for poultry farming. In May 1970, the Government also decided to ban the export of sheep and goats to help control the prices of meat. Both the 1969/70 and the 1970/71 Budgets introduced fiscal measures which would, comparatively speaking, lighten the burden of increasing costs for the common man, in the general context of rising direct and indirect taxation.

It also needs to be noted that the increase in prices and cost of living, burdensome though they surely are, have not been quite as large as is sometimes suggested on the basis of multiple increases since 1948/49 in the prices of such items of food as milk, fish, meat, vegetable ghee, pulses and spices. The general cost of living index for industrial workers has over the past 21 years until 1969/70 increased by no more than 53 per cent in Lahore, 73.4 per cent in Karachi and 66.5 per cent in Narayanganj. Between 1960/61 and 1969/70, the general consumer price index has risen by 30.6 to 36.1 per cent for clerical wage earners, and 32.4 to 36.8 per cent for industrial workers.

TABLE I

Private Fixed Investment in Relation to GNP

1964/65—1969/70

Year	Private fixed investment*	GNP at current market prices	GNP at current factor cost	Private investment as percentage of GNP at CMP	Private investment as percentage of GNP at CFC
1964/65	4,198	48,616	45,535	8.6	9.2
1965/66	3,979	53,037	49,690	7.5	8.0
1966/67	4,203	62,411	58,203	6.7	7.2
1967/68	4,472	66,082	61,608	6.8	7.3
1968/69 (Provisional)	4,562	72,000	68,310	6.3	6.7
1969/70** (Estimate)	3,646 (4,300)	78,600	74,971	4.6 (5.5)	4.9 (5.7)

* Excludes investment in inventories accumulated by the private sector, which if included would probably improve the picture to some extent.

**Rough revised estimate; the Fourth Plan estimated the investment at Rs. 4,300 million, giving correspondingly higher percentage figures, indicated in brackets.

TABLE II

Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Groups in East and West Pakistan

1959-60 = 100

Year	General		Food		Raw materials		Fuel, lighting & lubricants		Manufactures	
	EP	WP	EP	WP	EP	WP	EP	WP	EP	WP
1960/61	102.8	104.8	96.5	106.3	136.7	108.2	99.7	99.0	107.3	99.2
1961/62	106.8	104.6	107.9	104.7	101.7	110.8	99.6	98.3	105.4	101.0
1962/63	106.2	102.9	108.4	99.9	96.0	110.6	100.1	98.5	102.8	105.6
1963/64	102.5	106.3	104.0	104.6	94.0	112.4	105.7	104.0	102.1	107.0
1964/65	111.3	113.5	111.4	113.1	113.9	126.0	103.6	105.3	107.0	107.2
1965/66	122.8	112.0	123.5	108.2	124.7	125.6	106.7	109.2	115.5	112.7
1966/67	141.5	124.4	148.4	126.9	122.5	126.2	111.0	121.0	115.7	117.0
1967/68	129.7	126.0	135.6	133.3	107.1	106.0	111.5	123.6	115.9	121.7
1968/69	141.1	129.5	147.1	134.0	122.2	113.2	113.2	127.4	122.1	129.7
1969/70	145.9	132.2	153.7	134.1	119.7	122.1	114.2	132.2	123.3	134.4

Source : Central Statistical Office.

TABLE III

General Consumer Price Index for Selected

(*Base : 1960/61 = 100*)

Year	Clerical Wage Earners		Industrial Workers			
	Karachi	Chitta-gong	Karachi	Lahore	Sialkot	Narayan-ganj
1961/62	100.2	100.4	101.2	98.6	100.1	103.5
1962/63	100.4	101.1	99.9	97.1	98.5	105.0
1963/64	104.0	104.2	103.1	102.1	105.3	106.9
1964/65	110.0	106.2	109.3	107.6	107.8	111.5
1965/66	114.4	109.9	114.9	109.9	107.5	112.5
1966/67	123.1	123.2	125.0	121.3	122.0	123.5
1967/68	128.1	122.9	127.8	124.5	127.5	125.3
1968/69	130.9	128.4	129.1	124.6	129.6	131.7
1969/70	136.1	130.6	135.5	132.4	136.8	135.8

Note : The monthly average family income of clerical wage earners ranges from Rs. 186.11 to Rs. 240.40, and of industrial workers from Rs. 95.80 to Rs. 130, according to CSO.

Source : Central Statistical Office.

TABLE IV

General Cost of Living Index for Industrial Workers in Selected Centres

1960/61—1968/69

(*Base : April 1948—March 1949 = 100*)

Year	Karachi	Lahore	Sialkot	Narayan-ganj
1960/61	127.3	118.4	116.8	123.3
1961/62	130.0	124.4	117.4	128.1
1962/63	128.0	120.3	114.6	132.4
1963/64	131.9	127.1	122.6	133.2
1964/65	139.0	135.9	125.1	139.9
1965/66	147.0	134.6	124.2	138.5
1966/67	162.1	143.8	142.2	156.0
1967/68	162.2	146.2	150.6	155.8
1968/69	164.9	147.9	151.8	164.2
1969/70	173.4	152.8	159.8	166.5

Source : Central Statistical Office.

Finance and Banking

RELATING to the first year of the Fourth Five-Year Plan, the 1970/71 Budget has allocated Rs. 6,562.9 million (including a revenue development expenditure of Rs. 317.9 million) for development projects in the public sector. Of this amount, Rs. 4,752.7 million consists of development assistance to the Provinces in the form of loans and grants —Rs. 2,924.4 to East Pakistan and Rs. 1,828.3 to the four Provinces in West Pakistan, giving a ratio of 61.5 per cent for the East and 38.5 per cent for the West. A further amount of Rs. 787.8 million from foreign loans and local funds are also allocated for development projects of semi-independent bodies and the private sector.

The Budget's estimate of revenue receipts stands at Rs. 8,505.8 million, an increase of 9.7 per cent over the revised estimate for 1969/70, which is to be realized largely through an increase in income taxes and new taxes on various items. Of this total, an amount of Rs. 1,344.6 million has been earmarked for the Provinces as their share of Central taxes, and Rs. 5,572.3 million have been provided for expenditure in the revenue accounts of the Centre. Of this amount, about 13.3 per cent is allocated to Central Administration, 20 per cent to Debt Servicing, 5.7 per cent to Development Expenditure, 54 per cent for Defence Services, and the remainder of 7 per cent to various other heads.

Capital receipts for 1970/71 are estimated at Rs. 7,270.4 million (Rs. 7,700 million gross)—Rs. 3,665.0 million from internal resources, Rs. 3,206.5 from external sources in the form of loans and credits, and Rs. 398.9 million from the use of cash balances. Apart from the allocation of Rs. 4,573.5 million for capital account development assistance to the Provinces, the total development capital expenditure includes Rs. 752 million for other Plan development projects, Rs. 1,000 million for non-Plan expenditure on irrigation—and Rs. 80.5 million must be deducted from the total of these items to cover a likely shortfall, reducing the total development

capital expenditure in the public sector from Rs. 6,325.5 million to Rs. 6,245.0 million, which together with the allocations in the private sector (Rs. 787.8 million) amounts to a grand total of Rs. 7,032.8 million. Total non-development expenditure amounts to Rs. 871.4 million, and a contingency item of Rs. 200 million has also been included. The difference between the total of these items and the total capital receipts amounts to Rs. 833.8 million, which is the anticipated shortfall in guaranteed loans from external resources.

Procedure: Public finance is the Government's chief instrument for implementing comprehensively formulated economic policies which aim at rapid growth and the reorganization of the socio-economic structure. The national financial year runs from July 1 to June 30, and the Budget is usually announced by the Finance Minister in early June. All Ministries of the Government take part in Budget-making, but final shape to the Budget statement is given by the Ministry of Finance. After approval by the Cabinet, the Budget is presented to the National Assembly. Only new taxes and new expenditures require the approval of the legislature which is, of course, free to discuss all items of the Budget. The Public Accounts Committee of the National Assembly is empowered to scrutinize the annual statement of accounts prepared by the Auditor-General. Following consideration by the National Assembly, the Budget is submitted to the President for authentication.

The Budget consists of two important parts: revenue or current account and the capital account. The current account, financed by revenues from taxes, public enterprises, and other receipts, includes expenditure on defence administration, debt servicing and social services. The Capital account, financed by borrowing, miscellaneous capital receipts, accumulated balances and revenue account surplus, includes expenditure for the creation of economic assets of permanent value, that is, for the implementation of the national development programme.

The Constitution defines tax jurisdictions of the Central and Provincial Governments. The Centre is empowered to impose and collect (a) customs, (b) excise duties, (c) sales and purchase taxes, (d) income and corporation taxes, (e) estate and succession duties, (f) tax on the capital value of assets excluding immovable property, (g) taxes on sea and air traffic, and (h) taxes on natural gas, mineral oil and nuclear minerals. The Provincial list includes taxes on agricultural income, land and buildings, some duties excluded from central excise, stamp duties, vehicle tax and tolls on the movement of goods and some other levies. In the Central taxes, the share contributed by East Pakistan has increased from 17 per cent in 1959/60 to 26.3 per cent in 1968/69; so that in this year, at a share of 73.7 per cent, West Pakistan provided about Rs. 4,047 million out of the total tax proceeds of Rs. 5,491 million (including income tax and prize bonds).

A major source of revenue for the Provinces is their share in the proceeds of certain Central taxes. The system of distribution of revenues between the Centre and the Provinces has undergone certain changes during the last 20 years. Under the existing arrangements, 65 per cent of the

proceeds from taxes on income, sales tax, excise duties on tea, tobacco and betel-nut, as well as export duties on jute and cotton, goes to the Provinces.

Of the total Provincial share of taxes on income, excise and export duties, 54 per cent is allocated to East Pakistan and 46 per cent to West Pakistan. Exactly 30 per cent of the Provincial share in sales tax is distributed on the basis of the collection ratio between the two Provinces, and the rest is again divided as in the case of other taxes, that is 54 per cent to East Pakistan and 46 per cent to West Pakistan.

Important among the direct taxes are those on personal and company incomes exceeding Rs. 6,000 per annum. No discrimination is made between one taxpayer and another on the basis of nationality, but the taxation laws provide for a number of concessions and reliefs to individuals as well as to companies. Many industries, whether owned by local or foreign capital, enjoy a complete tax holiday for defined periods. The major sources of revenue are customs and excise duties and sales tax. Customs include the duties on imports of all goods at various rates, and on the exports of raw cotton, raw jute and fresh fish. All excise duties are imposed by the Centre, except those on narcotics and alcoholic liquors which fall within the jurisdiction of the Provinces. A number of cottage industry products are exempt from excise duty, and reliefs have been provided for all goods exported. Sales tax is collected on all goods, whether imported or locally made, except on certain specified items which are exempted. The steady increase in the revenues from excise duty and sales tax reflects the growth of industry.

New Tax and Other Financial Measures

Major new tax measures incorporated in the 1970/71 Budget include the following :

—A surcharge levied at the rate of 10 per cent of the tax liability on companies and registered firms and 12.5 per cent on other taxpayers. Companies enjoying a tax holiday will also pay the surcharge of 10 per cent on the basis of the tax that they would have paid had they not been exempt.

—Discontinuation of the 5 per cent rebate in supertax for banks and insurance companies.

—Revision of schedule of wealth tax rates to increase the effective tax rate.

—A raise in the general rate of the sales tax, with specified variations in certain cases, from 15 per cent to 20 per cent *ad valorem*.

—New taxes introduced for such items as fertilizers, cigarettes, television sets, paper and paper products, hotels and restaurants, tanned leather footwear priced at over Rs. 20 per pair, gold and silver products, steel furniture. These new taxes have been accompanied by tax relief on a number of other items, including clinkers, copper, watches, polystyrene, and synthetic resins, iron or steel forgings, electroplating anodes, optical frames, fire-fighting equipment, iron or steel coils, tissue paper for duplicators and stencils.

—Increase in penalty for concealment of income to a total of 250 per cent of the tax sought to be evaded.

—In general terms, the Finance Minister also stressed that "while direct taxes now contribute a little over 20 per cent of our total tax revenues, which does not compare unfavourably with most of the developing countries, it is felt that this ratio be improved further in order to imrpove the impact of indirect taxes which are generally passed on" It is in view of this aim that the first three of the above-mentioned measures have been introduced.

The 1970/71 Budget also contains measures to increase incentives for investment in East Pakistan, including: longer tax holidays, differential tariff rates on capital goods imported, cheaper raw materials and larger availability of credits at lower interest rates.

In addition, the following other financial measures were introduced in 1969/70 to improve opportunities for smaller investors and to control further concentration of wealth :

A Monopolies and Unfair Trade Practices (Control and Prevention) Ordinance has been promulgated after consulting the view of representative bodies of trade, commerce and industry, and also other sections of society.

Equity Participation Fund: This fund has been set up with a share capital of Rs. 50 million (Rs. 20 million from the Central Government, Rs. 10 million from the State Bank, Rs. 5 million each from East and West Pakistan, and Rs. 10 million from private investors) to help meet the capital requirements of medium and small enterprises, particularly in East Pakistan and the less developed areas of West Pakistan. With 60 per cent of the resources reserved for smaller projects, only those whose equity capital requirements do not exceed Rs. 2.5 million and which are sponsored by newcomers are elegible for participation from the Fund. Assistance to individual projects is confined to 40 per cent of the equity and takes the shape of either underwriting or outright purchase of equity capital. With its headquarters at Dacca, the Fund is administered by the Industrial Development Bank of Pakistan, although controlled by its own Board of Directors.

In order to make it possible to achieve a rapid expansion of the Fund, it has also been decided that as and when needed the Fund should issue interest-free debentures redeemable after eight years. Companies investing in these debentures will be given a tax credit of 50 per cent of their investment in these debentures.

Re-finance of Term Loans: The State Bank's provision of re-finance facilities to Commercial banks for a period of five years has been extended to 10 years as further support for development in backward areas.

Rural Credit Finance and Guarantee Fund : The Fund, encompassing the co-operation of commercial banks, is intended to provide a source of credit to private sector distributors to finance their sale of agricultural inputs to farmers on credit through short-term finance and a guarantee to the extent of 25

per cent of the losses, if any. While the provision of credit facilities for fertilizers is the first operation to be undertaken by the fund, its activities are in the process of being extended to other suitable areas of agricultural credit. Refinance will extend up to 50 per cent of the loan made by a commercial bank to a dealer.

Mutual Funds in the Private Sector : Following up on the success of the NIT and the mutual funds established by ICP, the Government has decided that, as soon as it has become able to regulate the securities market, it will allow the private sector to set up closed-end mutual funds under registration and other rules and regulations established by the Central Government.

Provincial Budgets : The Provincial Budgets follow the pattern set by the Centre and their preparation is also similar. The capital and revenue accounts are financed to a considerable extent by transfers from the Centre in the form of tax shares, grants-in-aid and loans. A large part of the revenue accounts is devoted to welfare services and civil works. The revenue structures of the two Provinces are quite different, though land is a major source of revenue common to both. Separate budgets are prepared for the Railways in both Provinces. (See chapter on Transport and Communications.)

As part of the continuing effort to promote more rapid development in East Pakistan and help remove economic disparities between the two wings of the country, the 1970/71 Provincial Budget of East Pakistan stands at 65.5 per cent of the total of all Provincial Budgets for development expenditure and 62.1 per cent of the total for non-development revenue expenditure in the five Provinces.

East Pakistan : The revenue budget estimate for 1970/71 stood at Rs. 1,681.9 million, and expenditure at Rs. 1,681.6 million, leaving a surplus of Rs. 0.3 million. However, after taking account of development receipts and development expenditure in the revenue budget, this shows a deficit of Rs. 1,039.3 million, total revenue receipts being 1,793.0 million and expenditure Rs. 2,832.3 million.

The Annual Development Programme for 1970/71 is budgeted at Rs. 3,124.4 million (Rs. 3,670 million gross), which is to be met by Rs. 200 million from Provincial resources, Rs. 2,924.4 million as cash assistance from the Centre in the form of grants and loans, and Rs. 490 million as Foreign Project Aid.

West Pakistan : Consequent upon the abolition of One Unit in West Pakistan and the re-establishment of the four Provinces of Baluchistan, North-West Frontier Province, the Panjab and Sind, separate Provincial Budgets for each of these Provinces have been prepared for 1970/71. The estimated non-development revenue receipts and non-development revenue expenditure for these Provinces is as follows :

(Million rupees)

	Baluchistan	NWFP	Panjab	Sind
Receipts	58.8	204.6	1,042.6	525.7
Expenditure	126.9	250.1	883.4	464.6

Thus revenue receipts and expenditure for the West Wing as a whole respectively total Rs. 1,831.7 million and Rs. 1,725.0 million.

The annual development expenditure, including the notionally allocable portion of the development programmes of the six undivided autonomous bodies of these Provinces (Rs. 407.9 million) are :

(Million rupees)

	Baluchistan	NWFP	Panjab	Sind
Development Expenditure	90.7	234.2	869.2	451.3

The total development expenditure in the region, including the unallocable Railway Programme (Rs. 275 million) and the power programme of WAPDA (Rs. 453.5 million) therefore amounts to Rs. 2,373.9 million.

In financing this development expenditure it is hoped that an operational shortfall of Rs. 303.8 million and a resource gap of Rs. 120 million would be met through Central assistance. Provincewise, while Baluchistan and N.W.F.P.'s entire development expenditure will have to be met with Central and foreign assistance, in the Panjab 28 per cent of the programme of Rs. 618.4 million and in Sind 24 per cent of the programme of Rs. 270.3 million will be financed from their own resources.

Monetary Management : The basic objective of monetary policy in Pakistan is the maintenance of monetary stability and assistance in the process of economic growth. To achieve this objective, the State Bank tries to ensure that monetary expansion and credit creation neither fall short of genuine requirements of the economy nor exceed the availability of real resources. The Bank has all along pursued a policy of 'controlled expansion'. The essence of this policy is that while the demand for credit for productive sectors should be fully met, use of bank funds for less essential purposes should be discouraged. Such a control on the volume of bank lending is essential not only for restraining the rise in price levels, but also for keeping the balance of payments in healthy shape.

State Bank : Monetary management is the direct responsibility of the State Bank of Pakistan. The Bank, an autonomous institution, is required to regulate and foster the growth of the monetary and credit system in the

best national interest and help in the fuller utilization of the country's productive resources. The Government holds not less than 51 per cent of the Bank's Rs. 30 million share capital. The Bank is managed by a Board of Directors. Six Directors are nominated by the Government and three elected by the shareholders. The Executive Head of the Bank, designated as Governor and appointed by the Government, is the Chairman of the Board of Directors. The Governor is assisted by one or more Deputy Governors also appointed by the Government, who are ex-officio members of the Board of Directors. There are, in addition, three regional Local Boards at Karachi, Lahore and Dacca. The Bank maintains four offices of issue at Karachi, Dacca, Lahore and Peshawar.

The State Bank operates the currency and credit system, issues notes and administers the country's foreign exchange resources. The note issue is fully backed by gold and approved foreign currency reserves, rupee coin and Government and other securities.

The instruments of monetary management include the Bank Rate, open market operations, fixation and custody of statutory reserves of commercial banks, enforcement of the liquidity ratio, selective credit controls and moral persuasion. The Bank Rate, fixed in 1948 at 3 per cent, was raised to 4 per cent in 1959, and to 5 per cent in 1965. The cash reserve requirements of commercial banks have been changed from time to time, the present minimum being 5 per cent of total deposits. The commercial banks are also required to maintain 25 per cent of their assets in cash and unencumbered securities to safeguard liquidity.

The State Bank acts as banker and adviser to the Government and also as the bankers' bank. It is vested with wide powers to control the methods and policies of commercial banks with a view to ensuring sound banking and adequate credit facilities for the development of the economy. As an agent of the Government, the Bank allocates foreign exchange according to fixed priorities. It operates a Rural Credit Fund and an Industrial Credit Fund created out of its own profits. It has recently also introduced an Industrial Re-finance Scheme, under which the State Bank provides re-finance facilities to banks against their term loans to individuals, partnership firms or corporate bodies for financing capital expenditure of existing or new industrial projects included in the Industrial Investment Schedule, within the ceiling fixed for each bank. Within the over-all limit, the Stete Bank also determines the extent to which it is prepared to provide re-finance for any individual project. Preference is given to small and medium-sized industries as well as to projects in less developed areas.

Banking : A wide network of institutional credit is provided by 62 commercial banks, of which 36 are scheduled banks and the remaining 26 non-scheduled banks. Scheduled banks have prescribed paid-up capital and reserves and fulfil other requirements laid down by the Government and the State Bank. Branch offices of Pakistani scheduled banks, as on June 30, 1970, numbered 2,868 out of a total of 3,133, with 41 foreign branches, inclusive of remittance branches under the Bonus Home Remittances Scheme. The biggest four

Pakistani banks are the National Bank of Pakistan, Habib Bank, United Bank and Muslim Commercial Bank.

Total bank credit (excluding foreign currency loans of ADBP and IDBP) increased by Rs. 1,111.9 million to Rs. 10,715.0 million during 1969/70, compared with a rise of Rs. 318.3 million in the preceding year and Rs. 1,055.3 million in 1967/68. The increase during the year was largely accounted for by bank credit to the private sector, which amounted to Rs. 9,490.2 million, showing an increase of Rs. 1,279.1 million over the past year. Bank credit to the Public sector, to finance such commercial operations as the procurement of food-grains, stood at Rs. 895.9 million, and inter-bank advances at Rs. 328.9 million.

The 36 scheduled banks, of which 17 are Pakistani and 19 foreign, at June 26, 1970, held deposits (demand and time liabilities) totalling Rs. 13,983.4 million (excluding inter-bank items), showing an increase of 14.8 per cent compared with 5.7 per cent in the preceding year and 10.2 per cent in 1967/68. Their total credit at the end of the financial year 1969/70 stood at Rs. 11,306.7 million, giving a credit-deposit ratio of 80 per cent. The demand-time liabilities ratio for the same period comes to 54.1 per cent.

The liquidity position of the banking system remained generally comfortable during the year 1969/70, and the outstanding level of scheduled banks' borrowing from the State Bank at the end of the year reflected a net fall of Rs. 207.5 million over the year, as compared with a decline of Rs. 87.9 million in the preceding year. The scheduled banks' net indebtedness to the State Bank (i.e. their borrowings from the latter minus excess reserves) amounted to Rs. 1,336.2 million at the end of the year as compared with Rs. 1,570.2 million at the end of 1968/69.

The non-scheduled banks, of which there are 13 functioning in East Pakistan and 13 in West Pakistan, had total liabilities amounting to Rs. 31.5 million on March 27, 1970, as against Rs. 20.2 million the previous year.

Co-operative Structure: The co-operative system, which meets the needs of the agricultural sector, comprises primary societies, central banks and apex co-operative banks. State Bank loans are the main source of co-operative finance, which is channelled through the apex banks. The total of loans sanctioned by the apex co-operative banks, to finance seasonal agricultural operations and development of agriculture in the country, amounted to Rs. 454.7 million in 1969/70.

National Bank of Pakistan: The National Bank is the most important and largest commercial bank, and the Central Government holds 25 per cent of its share capital. Under the statute that governs the Bank, Government exercises a measure of control over the Bank and nominates three out of a total of 12 Directors, in addition to the Managing Director. The Government also nominates one of the Directors to be President of the Board of Directors. As an agent of the State Bank, the Bank handles treasury business and undertakes special financing operations in connection with price stabilization, food procurement and development of small

industries. Its advances under the People's Credit Scheme stood at Rs. 380 million up to March 1970.

Specialized Credit: Four development corporations meet the long-term capital credit needs of industry, agriculture and housing. They are: Pakistan Industrial Credit and Investment Corporation (PICIC), Industrial Development Bank of Pakistan (IDBP), Agricultural Development Bank of Pakistan (ADBP) and House Building Finance Corporation (HBFC). The Agricultural Development Bank and the Industrial Development Bank also function as commercial banks.

PICIC: The Corporation is authorized to provide long and medium-term loans in foreign and local currencies to medium and large-scale industries in addition to taking equity participation. For larger projects, it shares financing, wherever possible, with other institutions abroad. The Corporation also underwrites shares as part of its programme to assist in the development of the capital market.

The Corporation has an authorized share capital of Rs. 150 million, of which Rs. 50 million is paid-up. Of the paid-up capital, 60 per cent, i.e. Rs. 30 million, has been subscribed by Pakistani investors, while the remaining 40 per cent is held by private interests in the U.S.A., Canada, U.K., Japan, West Germany, Italy, and by the International Finance Corporation (IFC).

Total resources at the disposal of the Corporation at the end of March 1970 amounted to Rs. 1,992 million; paid-up capital and reserves Rs. 22 million; long term loans from Government Rs. 80 million; long-term rupee loan from US (AID) Rs. 30 million; and lines of credit in foreign currencies Rs. 1,760 million.

The minimum lending limit of the Corporation is Rs. 1.5 million in foreign currency for a new project. This limit has been lowered to Rs. 1.0 million in foreign currency for any new project to be located in East Pakistan.

Since its inception, in February 1958, to March 31, 1970, the Corporation had sanctioned direct loans (less cancelled or withdrawn) for a total of Rs. 2,117 million to 780 projects. Of the total loans, Rs. 1,993 million were in foreign currencies and Rs. 124 million in local currency. In addition, the Corporation assisted 50 projects through direct participation in their equity, amounting to Rs. 21 million, and has underwritten 56 public issues for Rs. 83 million. It also directly arranged finance from abroad for 18 of its large projects, totalling Rs. 307 million, and financed 28 joint ventures, which resulted in an inflow of Rs. 109 million of foreign private capital. Up to March 31, 1970, total direct loans, equity participation and other financing facilities provided by or through PICIC amounted to the equivalent of Rs. 2,637 million.

IDBP: Established in August 1961, IDBP has an authorized and paid-up capital of Rs. 50 million, 51 per cent of which is subscribed by the Government of Pakistan. It gives medium and long-term loans both in foreign

and local currencies to industrial concerns, and administers foreign credits on behalf of the Government. The Bank's normal upper lending limit is Rs. 2.5 million, including a foreign exchange component equivalent to Rs. 2.0 million. These limits are not applicable to cotton textiles, jute, mining and inland transport sectors, and such other industries as the Government may specify.

During 1969/70, the Bank sanctioned loans to the tune of Rs. 240.4 million, including Rs. 188.9 million in foreign currency, bringing the total number of loans sanctioned to 3,916 for a total amount of Rs. 1,956 million, of which 77 per cent is in foreign exchange.

ADBP : The authorized capital of the Bank, established in 1961, is Rs. 200 million divided into 2 million shares of Rs. 100 each, and the subscribed capital stood at Rs. 140 million on March 31, 1969. The Bank provides short, medium and long-term loans to individuals engaged in the development of agriculture, storage, warehousing, marketing or processing of agricultural products and in cottage industries of rural areas. Up to May 31, 1970, the Bank had disbursed loans amounting to Rs. 1,219.2 million, Rs. 540.6 million in East Pakistan and Rs. 678.6 million in West Pakistan. At the end of June, 1970, the total outstanding advances of the Bank stood at Rs. 696.8 million; and during the year 1969/70, it sanctioned loans and advances to the extent of Rs. 190.2 million as compared with Rs. 184.4 million in the preceding year. Interest charged by the Bank amounts to 7 per cent per annum on short-term loans and 8 per cent on medium and long-term loans.

HBFC : The Corporation, established in 1952, has a share capital of Rs. 50 million entirely subscribed by the Central Government. It also raises funds to augment its working capital by issuing debentures. Applications from individuals are entertained for loans not exceeding Rs. 40,000 and not below Rs. 2,000 for construction of residential houses at an interest rate of 7.5 to 8 per cent. The Corporation had sanctioned loans of Rs. 548.1 million up to March 31, 1970. More than 25,000 houses and flats have so far been constructed with the financial assistance of the Corporation.

Money Market : The main feature of the money market is inter-bank transactions. The Call Money Rate (6.5 per cent) exceeds the Bank Rate, since the banking system depends more on its own resources than on borrowings from the State Bank. Some banks also discount Bills of Exchange with the support of the Bill Discounting Scheme of the State Bank. The capital market consists of the Stock Exchange and trading in bonds and securities. In the gilt-edged sectors, the only participants are the State Bank, commercial banks, insurance companies, local bodies and public corporations. The insurance companies are required to maintain 40 per cent of their assets in Government approved securities, and they also have substantial investments in the Stock Exchange.

Stock Exchange : Since it was organized in 1948 with 13 companies on its list, the Stock Exchange at Karachi has greatly expanded. There are now 220 companies registered at the Stock Exchange with ordinary shares, preference shares and convertible shares. The Government has recently adopted measures to ensure the smooth functioning and growth of the Stock Exchange as an effective channel of investment.

ICP : The Investment Corporation of Pakistan, established in 1966 with an authorized capital of Rs. 200 million and a paid-up capital of Rs. 50 million —provided by 20 financial institutions, including banks and insurance companies,—finances, manages and distributes the issue of stocks, debentures, bonds and securities. Long-term loans from Government, which form a substantial part of the resources of the Corporation, stood at Rs. 165 million on June 30, 1970. The Chairman, Managing Director and four Directors of the Corporation are appointed by the Government while five Directors are elected by the shareholders.

NIT : The National Investment Trust, established by the Government in association with four banks, two industrial finance institutions, the Insurance Corporation and three leading industrialists, promotes savings and invests them in shares. The National Bank of Pakistan is the Trustee of the Fund, whereas the policy decisions and management of the Fund vests in the National Investment Trust Limited through professional experts. Its two-fold purpose is to broaden the base of industrial investment and also to help stabilize the Stock Exchange. It is authorized to subscribe for 20 per cent of any new floatations if it so desires. The Trust fund is divided into units which are sold to the public. The units represent a proportionate fraction of the value of the Trust property and they are encashable at any time. By June 30, 1970, there were 64,012 Unit-holders, and net sales of units amounted to Rs. 452.1 million, in which the share of East Pakistan stood at Rs. 47.9 million or 10.6 per cent. The total assets at June 30, 1970, stood at Rs. 516.4 million, and the Trust's diversified investments covered as many as 230 companies. In addition to tax relief on investment, Unit-holders are entitled to a tax-free receipt of dividends up to Rs. 5,000 per annum.

Insurance : The insurance law prescribes a minimum paid-up capital of Rs. 1 million and a minimum working capital of Rs. 50,000 for an insurance company. Life insurance companies may invest 60 per cent of their life funds in approved bonds and securities; the limit for others is 40 per cent. Of the 73 companies registered in Pakistan, 27 are foreign —17 incorporated in U.K., five in U.S.A., two in New Zealand, and one each in Canada, France and Australia. Two of them do life business exclusively, two life as well as general business, and 23 do general business only. Of the 46 Pakistani companies, 12 are engaged exclusively in life business, 27 are engaged both in life as well as general business, and seven do general business only.

Pakistan Insurance Corporation : Established in 1953, the Corporation has

a paid-up capital of Rs. 5 million, 51 per cept subscribed by the Government, and 49 per cent by the insurance companies and the general public. Its responsibilities include: development of the insurance industry, provision of re-insurance facilities, and administration of the National Co-insurance Scheme (NCS) and the Export Credit Guarantee Scheme. The Corporation also manages the War Risks Insurance Schemes of the Government. The Corporation, as Secretary to the NCS, underwrites the business emanating from Government and semi-Government institutions, which is distributed among the national companies. In addition, the Corporation has also been entrusted with the management of the RCD Marine and Aviation Re-insurance Pools.

The gross premium income of the Corporation amounted to Rs. 143.3 million at the end of December 1969, and its profit to Rs. 9.3 million, compared with corresponding figures of Rs. 132.0 million and Rs. 7.4 million at the end of the preceding year.

The gross premium income of the National Co-Insurance Scheme for the year 1969 is estimated at Rs. 75.0 million, compared to Rs. 61.0 million in 1968 and Rs. 37.5 million in 1967. The phenomenal growth in the last two years is attributable to the vigorous efforts made to bring all the Government and statutory corporations' business under the purview of the Scheme. Measures were also adopted to give East Pakistan insurance companies their due share in the business of the Scheme, and a phased programme for the distribution of shares has been introduced to remove disparity by 1971.

Extending insurance cover against commercial and political risks of insolvency or protracted default by foreign buyers, the Export Credit Guarantee Scheme's liability has been enhanced from 85 to 90 per cent in the case of political risks and from 75 to 80 per cent in the case of commercial risks. Further, in order to put exporters on to ready cash, advance payments are arranged against a bank guarantee pending finalization of all claims appearing to be *prima facie* genuine.

TABLE I

Revenue Receipts of the Central Government since 1960/61

(Million rupees)

Year	Tax receipts			Other Revenues	Total	
	Gross collection	Share of Provinces	Net		Gross receipts	Net receipts
1960/61	1,944.2	373.9	1,570.3	551.0	2,495.2	2,121.3
1961/62	2,180.5	432.4	1,748.1	523.1	2,703.6	2,271.2
1962/63	2,346.6	719.3	1,627.3	327.8	2,674.4	1,955.1
1963/64	2,842.6	886.4	1,956.2	875.0	3,717.6	2,831.2
1964/65	3,437.5	920.0	2,517.5	784.7	4,222.2	3,301.0
1965/66	3,917.3	1,070.0	2,835.0	962.4	4,879.7	3,797.9
1966/67	4,603.8	1,224.1	3,379.7	1,095.5	5,699.3	4,475.2
1967/68	4,805.7	1,118.5	3,687.2	1,239.8	6,045.5	4,927.0
1968/69	5,474.0	1,139.2	4,334.8	1,439.3	6,913.3	5,774.1
1969/70 (Revised)	6,057.6	1,270.6	4,787.0	1,696.8	7,754.4	6,483.8
1970/71 (Budget)	6,446.2	1,344.6	5,101.6	2,059.6	8,505.8	7,161.2

Source : Ministry of Finance.

TABLE II

Revenue Collections under Main Tax Heads since 1960/61

(Million rupees)

Year	Customs	Central Excise	Corporation and Income Tax	Sales Tax	Other taxes and duties	Total
1960/61	620.5	401.1	383.8	467.1	72.4	1,944.2
1961/62	736.5	397.7	449.4	480.0	116.9	2,180.5
1962/63	762.4	506.7	507.8	523.2	46.5	2,346.6
1963/64	786.7	716.4	580.2	675.5	83.8	2,842.6
1964/65	1,078.3	816.1	659.0	705.9	178.2	3,437.5
1965/66	1,075.7	985.4	722.7	789.1	344.4	3,917.3
1966/67	1,275.0	1,492.5	794.8	868.2	173.3	4,603.8
1967/68	1,280.0	1,897.5	810.0	670.6	147.6	4,805.7
1968/69	1,691.3	2,029.2	857.1	703.5	192.9	5,474.0
1969/70 (Revised)	1,650.0	2,468.0	1,022.0	686.0	231.6	6,057.6
1970/71 (Budget)	1,800.0	2,634.4	1,074.5	721.7	215.6	6,446.2

Source : Ministry of Finance.

TABLE III

Central Budget at a Glance
1968/69 — 1970/71

A. *Revenue Budget*

(Million rupees)

Head	1968/69 Accounts	1969/70 Budget	1969/70 Revised	1970/71 Budget
Revenue				
A. *Proceeds of Taxation* :				
Customs	1,691.3	1,795.0	1,650.0	1,800.0
Central Excise Duties	2,029.2	2,473.0	2,468.0	2,634.4
Corporation Tax and Taxes on Income	857.1	1,022.0	1,022.0	1,074.5
Sales Tax	703.5	714.1	686.0	721.7
Other Heads	192.9	246.3	231.6	215.6
Total	5,474.0	6,250.4	6,057.6	6,446.2
B. *Receipts from Other Sources* :				
Post Office (net)	11.1	0.3	5.9	6.4
Telegraph and Telephone (net)	102.5	153.8	125.9	180.5
Debt Services	896.7	1,052.4	1,104.5	1,320.2
Civil Administration	56.0	67.5	72.6	80.3
Currency and Mint	78.1	83.0	83.5	95.5
Civil Works	16.0	12.6	16.3	16.1
Miscellaneous	123.0	107.5	129.1	124.7
Defence Services	136.3	130.0	130.0	141.8
Extraordinary Items	41.8	106.0	29.0	94.1
Total	1,439.3	1,713.1	1,696.8	2,059.6
TOTAL REVENUE	6,913.3	7,963.5	7,754.4	8,505.8
Expenditure met from Revenue				
Direct Demands on Revenue (Expenditure of Revenue Collecting Departments)	63.3	76.2	71.8	78.1
Debt Servicing	771.9	956.5	931.3	1,130.2
Civil Administration :				
General Administration	126.9	144.6	163.3	182.0
Audit	35.5	39.8	40.5	44.6
Police	31.6	34.5	37.9	54.8
Frontier Regions	94.9	96.4	113.7	113.9
Foreign Affairs	40.5	43.1	42.4	46.3
Scientific Departments	49.2	57.6	54.3	70.1
Education	19.7	21.9	23.1	28.7
Medical and Public Health	21.6	25.8	24.7	29.1
Agriculture and Industries	11.8	13.6	13.6	15.7
Aviation	37.4	61.3	84.1	55.6
Broadcasting	29.4	35.9	34.8	34.3
Miscellaneous Departments	11.7	14.0	16.0	30.2
Other Administrative Departments	15.6	17.0	16.8	18.1
Total—Civil Administration	525.8	605.5	665.2	723.4

Note : The accounts for 1968/69 are provisional and subject to final adjustments.

TABLE III

A. *Revenue Budget* (*Contd.*)

(Million rupees)

Head	1968/69 Accounts	1968/69 Budget	1969/70 Revised	1970/71 Budget
Currency and Mint	11.3	12.4	13.3	13.3
Civil Works and Central Road Fund	80.4	50.7	57.9	64.4
Miscellaneous :				
Pensions, Stationery and Printing	47.0	37.3	45.5	42.9
Contribution to the Central Rehabilitation Fund	38.0	39.6	36.0	38.0
Other Miscellaneous Expenditure	97.8	113.8	120.8	118.8
Total—Miscellaneous	182.8	190.7	202.3	199.7
Defence Services	2,426.8	2,600.0	2,760.0	3,000.0
Grants-in-Aid, etc. to Provincial Governments (Non-development)	51.1	40.0	40.0	40.0
Extraordinary Items :				
Development Expenditure	243.0	346.0	427.3	317.9
Other Heads	6.5	5.0	5.2	5.3
Total—Extraordinary Items	249.5	351.0	432.5	323.2
Total—Expenditure met from Revenue	4,362.9	4,883.0	5,174.3	5,572.3
Provincial Share of Taxes	1,139.2	1,237.3	1,270.6	1,344.6
Surplus/Deficit (—)	1,411.2	1,843.2	1,309.5	1,588.9
TOTAL EXPENDITURE	6,913.3	7,963.5	7,754.4	8,505.8

Source : Annual Budget Statement.

TABLE III (Contd.)

B. *Capital Budget*

(Million rupees)

Head	1968/69 Accounts	1969/70 Budget	1969/70 Revised	1970/71 Budget
RECEIPTS				
I. *Internal Resources*				
Borrowings :				
Market Loans (net)	493.8	285.0	97.0	2,870.0
Income Tax and Prize Bonds (net)	17.3	55.0	65.0	25.0
Permanent Debt (net)	511.1	340.0	162.0	2,895.0
Floating Debt (net)	325.4	204.5	1,617.2	−2,037.1
Total	836.5	544.5	1,779.2	857.9
Receipts from Other Sources :				
Revenue Surplus Deficit	1,411.2	1,843.2	1,309.5	1,588.9
Unfunded Debt (net)	175.6	169.1	198.0	210.4
Accretions to Reserve Funds	320.7	389.9	469.7	426.5
Other Deposits and Remittances (net)	−45.8	4.7	383.5	−36.5
Recoveries of Loans and Advances	431.9	421.2	392.2	491.7
Other Capital Receipts State Trading (net)	40.2	56.5	119.8	126.1
Total	0,333.8	2,884.6	2,872.7	2,807.1
Total—Internal Resources	3,170.3	3,429.1	4,651.9	3,665.0
II. *External Resources*				
A. *Public Sector Plan*				
Borrowings :				
Project Loans (Foreign Exchange)	912.2	1,052.7	986.6	1,230.3
Central Loans	665.7	787.3	619.4	946.2
Guaranteed Loans	246.5	265.4	367.2	324.1
Non-Project Loans (Local Currency)	195.2	150.0	250.0	374.0
Commodity Loans (Foreign Exchange)	844.0	927.6	935.4	1,024.1
Total	1,951.4	2,130.3	2,172.0	2,628.4

TABLE III

B. *Capital Budget* (*Contd.*)

(Million Rupees)

Head	1968/69 Accounts	1969/70 Budget	1969/70 Revised	1970/71 Budget
Receipts from Other Sources :				
Projects Grants Foreign Exchange (Including Technical Assistance)	22.4	38.2	49.4	55.3
Non-projects Grants (rupee)	79.0	100.0	50.0	76.0
Sida/Grant (rupee)	—	—	—	1.3
Foreign Commodity Grants	36.5	45.0	31.0	95.8
Food Grants	—	40.8	79.4	68.7
Total	137.9	224.0	209.8	297.1
Total—Public Sector (Plan)	2,089.3	2,354.3	2,381.8	2,925.5
B. *Public Sector* (*Non-Plan*)	438.7	283.5	283.5	327.0
C. *Private Sector :*				
Central Loans	143.2	278.5	151.7	278.1
Guaranteed Loans	383.4	511.6	340.0	509.7
Total—Private Sector	526.6	790.1	491.7	787.8
D. *Food Credit*	15.8	—	—	—
Total—Gross External Resources	3,070.4	3,427.9	3,157.0	4,040.3
Less— Likely Shortfall in External Resources (Public Sector) Guaranteed Loans	−629.9	−777.0	−707.2	−833.8
Net External Resources	2,440.5	2,650.9	2,449.8	3,206.5
TOTAL RESOURCES	5,610.8	6,080.0	7,101.7	6,871.5
III. *Use of Cash Balance*	—	—	5.6	398.9
TOTAL RECEIPTS	5,610.8	6,080.0	7,107.3	7,270.4

TABLE III

B. *Capital Budget (Contd.)*

(Million rupees)

Head	1968/69 Accounts	1969/70 Budget	1969/70 Revised	1970/71 Budget
DISBURSEMENTS				
I. DEVELOPMENT EXPENDITURE ON CAPITAL ACCOUNT				
A. *Plan Expenditure*				
1. *Direct Expenditure on Central Projects :*				
Post Office Department	12.3	12.1	12.1	14.0
Telegraph and Telephone Department	182.8	140.0	177.8	200.0
Industrial Development	14.5	18.2	14.8	12.6
Civil Aviation	45.1	69.6	53.0	67.0
New Federal Capital	111.5	67.5	77.5	73.0
Civil Works	32.1	28.5	25.4	35.3
Other Works	113.7	147.8	195.1	128.8
Miscellaneous Investments	111.0	114.2	116.5	139.2
Other Heads	41.0	49.9	47.4	62.3
Total	664.0	647.8	719.6	732.2
2. *Loans to Semi-independent Bodies, Local Funds, Government Servants, etc.*	15.2	16.5	16.5	19.8
3. *Development Assistance to the Provinces :*				
Development Loans (Cash)	2,098.0	2,535.7	2,736.1	3,419.8
Development Loans (Foreign Exchange)	911.8	883.5	886.0	1,019.3
Development Grants (Cash)	282.8	318.0	343.0	275.1
Development Grants (Foreign Exchange)	17.5	26.6	44.3	38.5
Total	3,310.1	3,763.8	4,009.4	4,752.7
Less—Cash Grants included in Revenue Account	−136.2	−214.2	−203.4	−179.2
Total—Capital Account Development Assistance	3,173.9	3,549.6	3,806.0	4,573.5
4. *Block Provision for Social Sector*	—	400.0	—	—
Less—Expenditure met from Dev. Programme	—	−100.0	—	—
Less—Likely Shortfall	—	—	−231.8	−80.5
Total—Plan Expenditure	3,853.1	4,513.9	3,310.3	5,245.0

TABLE III

B. *Capital Budget (Contd.)*

B. *Non-Plan Expenditure :*				
Irrigation	931.2	794.6	944.9	1,000.0
TOTAL—DEVELOPMENT CAPITAL EXPENDITURE (*Public Sector*)	4,784.3	5,308.5	5,255.2	6,245.0
C. *Foreign Loans to Semi-independent Bodies, Local Funds etc. for Private Sector Development Projects*	526.6	790.1	756.1	787.8
II. NON-DEVELOPMENT EXPENDITURE ON CAPITAL ACCOUNT				
1. *Direct Expenditure :*				
Direct Expenditure of Central Government	—	0.8	0.8	223.8
Currency	10.1	17.3	14.4	16.7
Other Works	17.3	18.2	155.7	—
State Trading (Net)	14.0	67.5	46.1	41.4
Miscellaneous Investments	80.5	16.1	29.3	12.0
Expenditure from Reserve Funds	161.6	215.0	205.2	264.9
Repayment of Foreign Loans	153.4	30.8	28.9	15.4
Repayment of Food Credits	9.7	15.6	15.6	17.1
Other Investments	—	0.4	42.7	—
Total :	446.6	381.7	538.7	591.3
2. *Cash Loans to Semi-independent Bodies, etc.*	391.5	165.7	1,244.2	260.1
3. *Cash Assistance to Provinces*	—	10.5	10.3	20.0
TOTAL—NON-DEVELOPMENT CAPITAL EXPENDITURE	838.1	557.7	1,793.2	871.4
TOTAL—CAPITAL EXPENDITURE	6,149.0	6,656.3	7,804.5	7,904.2
Less—Guaranteed Loans :				
Public Sector	-246.5	-265.4	-367.2	-324.1
Private Sector	-383.4	-511.6	-340.0	-509.7
Total	-629.9	-777.0	-707.2	-833.8
TOTAL—CAPITAL DISBURSEMENTS	5,519.1	5,879.3	7,097.3	7,070.4
III. CONTINGENCY ITEM	—	200.0	10.0	200.0
IV. CASH BALANCE IMPROVEMENT	91.7	0.7	—	—
GRAND TOTAL	5,610.8	6,080.0	7,107.3	7,270.4

Source : Annual Budget Statement.

TABLE IV

External Resources

(Million rupees)

	1969/70 Budget	1969/70 Revised	1970/71 Budget
I. FOREIGN EXCHANGE RESOURCES			
A. **Project Loans**			
(*i*) *Central Loans :*			
Belgium	—	—	35.0
Canada	58.4	37.3	66.5
China	18.0	16.2	01.8
Denmark	1.0	—	01.7
France	0.4	9.9	8.8
Germany	85.9	86.3	156.1
I.B.R.D.	42.1	34.0	41.0
I.D.A.	217.8	128.9	232.6
Japan	81.4	71.9	89.5
Poland	3.6	5.2	1.2
Switzerland	11.9	12.2	08.9
Sweden	12.7	13.0	21.7
United Kingdom	14.3	12.1	4.6
U. S. S. R.	27.7	48.7	43.0
Yugoslavia	11.5	05.0	14.1
U.S. Aid/DLF/Eximbank	200.6	138.7	179.7
Total—Central Loans	787.3	619.4	906.2
(*ii*) *Guaranteed Loans :*			
Asian Development Bank	—	—	14.0
Austria	0.3	—	14.0
Belgium	1.1	—	—
Canada	45.4	27.1	6.6
Czechoslovakia	84.3	105.6	32.7
France	14.2	16.4	13.5
Germany	27.3	32.9	28.9
Italy	20.9	20.0	48.0

TABLE IV

External Resources (Contd.)

(Million rupees)

	1969/70 Budget	1969/70 Revised	1970/71 Budget
Japan	24.8	32.1	5.0
Netherlands	3.8	—	—
Poland	7.1	4.1	39.8
Turkey	10.0	2.0	10.0
United Kingdom	11.3	26.3	25.7
U.S.S.R.	48.8	57.2	21.3
Yugoslavia	42.3	43.5	87.3
U.S. Aid/DLF/Eximbank	1.5	—	—
Switzerland	—	—	1.1
Total :	343.1	367.2	347.9
Less—Likely shortfall	(−) 7.77	—	(−) 23.8
Total—Guaranteed Loans	265.4	367.2	324.1
Total—Project Loans	1,052.7	986.6	1,230.3
B. Project Grants			
Australia	2.0	5.4	2.8
Canada	7.6	3.5	8.9
Ford Foundation	3.1	3.7	2.9
Newzealand	—	—	0.8
U.S. AID	12.1	13.0	9.1
U.N. and its Specialized Agencies	7.3	20.3	12.5
Other Countries/Agencies	6.0	3.4	18.3
Total—Project Grants	38.1	49.3	55.3
TOTAL—FOREIGN EXCHANGE RESOURCES	1,090.8	1,035.9	1,285.6

TABLE IV

External Resources—(Contd.)

(Million rupees)

	1969/70 Budget	1969/70 Revised	1970/71 Budget
II. RUPEE RESOURCES			
Commodity Aid			
(*i*) *Commodity Loans :*			
Saudi Arabia	—	—	27.1
Belgium	7.1	6.0	9.4
Canada	57.1	122.5	65.7
China	14.3	20.0	20.0
France	16.7	15.1	30.0
Italy	38.1	49.4	39.6
Japan	52.4	36.2	37.1
Netherlands	28.6	16.0	30.3
Switzerland	4.8	11.1	—
United Kingdom	57.1	79.9	102.7
U.S.S.R.	—	4.9	11.9
U.S. AID/DLF/Eximbank	571.4	470.8	595.3
Kuwait	—	23.5	—
Total—Commodity Loans	847.6	855.4	969.1
(*ii*) *Commodity Grants :*			
Australia	—	—	0.5
Canada	45.0	15.3	7.2
Norway	—	15.7	8.1
Sweden	—	—	20.0
Germany	—	—	60.0
Food Aid Convention Grants/ World Food Programme	40.8	79.4	68.7
Total—Commodity Grants	85.8	110.4	164.5
Total—Commodity Aid	933.4	965.8	1,133.6

TABLE IV

External Resources—(Contd.)

(Million rupees)

	1969/70 Budget	1969/70 Revised	1970/71 Budget
(iii). *Releases from Counterpart Funds :*			
PL-480 Loans	150.0	250.0	374.0
PL-480 Grants	100.0	50.0	76.0
German Loans	80.0	80.0	55.0
Rupee Aid for Family Planning	—	—	1.3
Total	330.0	380.0	506.3
TOTAL—RUPEE RESOURCES	1,263.4	1,345.8	1,639.9
D. **Indus Basin Loans**	283.5	283.6	271.4
E. **Aid for Flood Control Schemes in East Pakistan**	—	—	55.6
TOTAL—EXTERNAL RESOURCES	2,637.7	2,665.3	3,252.5

TABLE V

Financing the Development Programme for 1969/70 and 1970/71

(Million rupees)

	1969/70 Budget	1970/71 Budget		
		Foreign Exchange Portion	Rupee Portion	Total
A. SIZE OF THE PROGRAMME				
I. **Development Programme (Plan)**				
Centre	794.6	227.8	676.0	903.8
East Pakistan	2,310.0	654.7	2,795.3	3,450.0
West Pakistan	1,900.0	403.1	1,946.9	2,350.0
Block provision for Social Sectors	400.0	—	—	—
Less—Expenditure met by transfer from the Development Programme	–100.0	—	—	—
Total	5,304.6	1,285.6	5,418.2	6,703.8
II. **Indus Basin**	511.1	271.4	428.6	700.0
III. **Flood Control Schemes (East Pakistan)**	—	55.6	244.4	300.0
Total—Development Programme	5,815.7	1,612.6	6,091.2	7,703.8
Less—Operational shortfall under Development Programme (Plan)	—	—	–720.0	–720.0
Net Annual Programme	5,815.7	1,612.6	5,371.2	6,983.8
B. FINANCING				
I. **Internal Resources**				
(*a*) *Central Government* :				
Revenue Receipts	6,726.2	—	7,161.3	7,161.3
Less—Non-Development Revenue Expenditure	4,537.0	—	5,254.4	5,254.4
Revenue Surplus	2,189.2	—	1,906.9	1,906.9

TABLE V—(Contd.)

	1969/70 Budget	1970/71 Budget		
		Foreign Exchange Portion	Rupees Portion	Total
Capital Receipts	1,186.0	—	1,476.2	1,476.2
Capital Payments	759.2	—	1,074.7	1,074.7
Net Capital Receipts	426.8	—	401.5	401.5
Total—Central Government	2,616.0	—	2,308.4	2,308.4
(*b*) *East Pakistan*	141.2	—	154.8	154.8
(*c*) *West Pakistan*	305.0	—	269.2	269.2
(*d*) *Deficit Financing*	400.0	—	600.0	600.0
Total—Internal Resources	3,462.2	—	3,332.4	3,332.4
(*II*) **External Resources**				
(*a*) Project Aid	1,090.8	1,285.6	—	1,285.6
(*b*) Commodity Loans and Grants	892.6	—	1,064.9	1,064.9
(*c*) Releases from PL-480	250.0	—	450.0	450.0
(*d*) German Counterpart Funds	80.0	—	55.0	55.0
(*e*) Food Aid Convention Grants/World Food Programme etc.	40.8	—	70.0	70.0
(*f*) Indus Basin Loans	—	271.4	—	271.4
(*g*) Aid for Flood Control Schemes in East Pakistan	—	55.6	—	55.6
Total—External Resources	2,354.2	1,612.6	1,639.9	3,252.5
Total—Internal and External Resources	5,816.4	1,612.6	4,972.3	6,584.9
(C) **GAP**	- 0.7	—	398.9	398.9
TOTAL—FINANCING	5,815.7	1,612,6	5,371.2	6,983.8

Source : Ministry of Finance

TABLE VI

State Bank of Pakistan—Assets of the Issue Department

(Million rupees)

Date (Fridays)[1]	Total Assets (6+8+9)	Gold and Foreign Assets				Domestic Assets			
		Gold	Foreign Securities	Government of India Notes	Total	Government of Pakistan Securities	Total[2]	With Reserve Bank of India	Foreign Exchange (6+9)
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1965/66	5,884	252	908	430	1,590	3,809	4,240	59	1,649
1966/67	5,755	252	566	273	1,091	4,489	4,609	54	1,145
1967/68	5,880	255	604	273	1,132	4,198	4,700	48	1,180
1968/69	6,765	255	960	273	1,488	4,457	5,229	48	1,536
1969 July	6,768	255	961	273	1,489	4,585	5,231	48	1,537
August	6,670	255	948	273	1,476	4,640	5,147	48	1,524
September	6,616	255	942	273	1,470	4,596	5,099	48	1,518
October	6,608	255	939	273	1,466	4,607	5,094	48	1,514
November	6,747	255	943	273	1,471	4,753	5,228	48	1,519
December	7,168	255	936	273	1,464	5,209	5,656	48	1,512
1970 January	7,279	255	924	273	1,452	5,321	5,779	48	1,500
February	7,417	255	924	273	1,452	5,471	5,917	48	1,500
March	7,228	255	928	273	1,456	5,267	5,724	48	1,504
April	7,089	255	916	273	1,443	5,130	5,597	48	1,491
May	7,145	255	916	273	1,443	5,180	5,654	48	1,491
June	7,148	255	830	273	1,357	5,266	5,743	48	1,405
July	7,003	255	673	273	1,200	5,273	5,755	48	1,248
August 7	7,048	255	695	273	1,223	5,300	5,777	48	1,271
,, 14	7,047	255	689	273	1,216	5,307	5,783	48	1,264
,, 21	7,002	255	678	273	1,205	5,268	5,748	48	1,253
,, 28	7,004	255	673	273	1,203	5,271	5,753	48	1,251

Source : State Bank of Pakistan.

1 Last Friday of the Year/Month.
2 This includes Rupee Coin, Internal Bills of Exchange and other commercial papers.

TABLE VII

State Bank of Pakistan—Liabilities and Assets of the Banking Department

(Million rupees)

Date (Fridays)[1]	LIABILITIES						ASSETS					
	Deposits				Other Liabilities	Total Liabilities or Assets	Notes	Provincial Governments Debtor Balances	Loans & Advances	Investments	Balance held outside Pakistan	Other assets
	Central Government	Provincial Governments	Banks	Other								
1965/66	241	—	491	1,180	526	2,438	143	110	785	807	188	405
1966/67	199	22	759	1,193	605	2,778	137	7	1,345	349	19	921
1967/68	70	—	687	1,481	705	2,943	126	99	749	707	68	1,194
1968/69	273	—	758	1,430	718	3,179	135	485	649	622	288	1,000
1969 July	33	—	726	1,401	707	2,867	161	477	588	623	213	805
August	207	—	731	1,565	585	3,088	160	401	569	727	409	822
September	270	—	739	1,523	611	3,142	146	189	644	876	344	943
October	175	—	750	1,570	619	3,114	97	186	717	709	336	1,069
November	166	—	750	1,477	647	3,040	74	78	638	713	350	1,188
December	216	794	302	1,433	686	3,931	177	—	719	1,361	356	1,317
1970 January	402	625	845	1,442	824	4,138	188	—	748	1,261	304	1,635
February	78	489	787	1,455	899	3,708	219	—	709	1,318	342	1,120
March	210	471	799	1,419	907	3,807	199	—	543	1,626	319	1,120
April	325	285	814	1,398	915	3,736	165	—	559	1,752	338	922
May	294	243	831	1,428	932	3,728	188	—	621	1,696	282	941
June	386	200	866	1,391	984	3,827	198	—	719	1,633	245	1,032
July	588	257	860	1,431	921	4,056	184	—	742	1,827	250	1,054
August 7	262	445	852	1,451	912	3,921	82	—	758	1,790	217	1,075
,, 14	304	340	802	1,447	859	3,752	104	—	677	1,679	214	1,077
,, 21	222	531	874	1,416	714	3,757	131	—	588	1,718	232	1,088
,, 28	172	471	851	1,435	765	3,685	173	—	535	1,715	223	1,040

[1] Last Friday of the Year/Month

Source : State Bank of Pakistan.

TABLE VIII

Consolidated Position of Scheduled Banks—Selected Items

(Million rupees)

Date (Fridays)[1]	Number of reporting Scheduled Banks	Liabilities: Total Demand Liabilities	Liabilities: Total Time Liabilities	Liabilities: Borrowings from State Bank[2]	Assets: Cash in Pakistan	Assets: Balance with State Bank and Other Banks[3]	Assets: Call Money	Assets: Total Investments	Assets: Total Bank Credit	Reserves: Total Statutory Reserves	Reserves: Excess Reserves
1965/66	36	4,531.1	4,259.2	1,012.0	230.1	574.6	355.0	2,241.1	6,695.2	439.5	50.6
1966/67	36	5,179.3	5,235.1	1,784.1	350.9	821.9	392.5	2,528.9	8,660.4	650.9	68.9
1967/68	36	5,397.2	5,995.6	1,698.0	310.5	688.8	349.4	2,782.1	9,794.0	569.6	34.1
1968/69	34	5,814.5	6,374.3	1,610.1	313.8	714.7	388.0	3,314.4	10,165.3	609.4	39.9
1969 July	36	5,931.4	6,321.7	1,306.1	269.5	711.9	378.7	3,356.7	9,914.5	612.7	99.2
August	36	5,860.2	6,382.4	1,226.2	290.6	708.6	387.6	3,372.5	9,755.8	612.1	34.6
September	36	5,881.4	6,390.1	1,417.7	273.9	714.7	376.3	3,518.0	9,841.0	613.6	40.0
October	35	5,878.6	6,467.7	1,603.8	318.0	707.0	378.3	3,549.0	10,137.7	617.3	31.8
November	35	6,146.0	6,479.0	1,648.2	304.5	720.1	401.5	3,617.5	10,428.3	631.3	38.7
December	35	6,593.6	6,659.8	1,880.5	416.2	779.4	456.0	3,663.8	11,067.4	662.7	39.5
1970 January	35	6,807.0	6,742.3	2,033.3	314.1	816.9	415.3	3,521.0	11,659.6	677.5	67.0
February	35	6,378.5	6,844.1	1,565.8	323.1	771.8	468.8	3,483.8	10,860.6	661.1	34.2
March	35	6,419.8	6,963.5	1,402.4	325.0	790.0	490.0	3,467.5	10,818.0	669.2	40.1
April	35	6,323.5	7,073.7	1,239.3	313.1	794.5	466.2	3,472.1	10,872.8	669.9	51.3
May	35	6,484.8	7,216.2	1,298.7	344.2	807.1	497.3	3,485.0	11,003.7	685.1	43.0
June	35	6,704.8	7,278.6	1,402.6	351.8	854.4	490.0	3,485.1	11,306.7	699.2	66.4
July	35	6,614.5	7,414.9	1,521.1	349.1	793.3	477.6	3,644.9	11,499.4	701.5	32.0
August 7	35	6,751.4	7,296.7	1,569.7	318.0	817.3	475.8	3,640.1	11,563.8	702.4	53.1
,, 13	35	6,867.0	7,182.4	1,566.3	323.8	790.0	490.0	3,612.0	11,466.9	702.5	23.7
,, 21	35	6,924.3	7,165.4	1,392.7	331.5	826.2	356.8	3,616.6	11,412.1	704.5	61.8
,, 28	35	6,974.6	7,201.7	1,321.4	332.8	821.5	487.3	3,598.2	11,470.0	708.8	47.0

[1] Last Friday of the year/month. [2] Not shown separately prior to January 29, 1954. *Source* : State Bank of Pakistan.

[3] Balances with other Banks are included here from January 29, 1954 and the figures given prior January to 29, 1954, refer to Balances with State Bank only.

TABLE IX

General Index of Share Prices

(Base : 1959/60 = 100)

Period		General Index	Banks	Insurance & Finance	Jute	Cotton & other Textiles		Fuel & Power	Construction & Engineering	
						Cotton Textiles	Other Textiles		Cement	Others
1965/66		108.4	179.3	130.3	127.6	90.4	78.1	97.7	97.8	66.8
1966/67		105.8	173.8	118.7	122.9	82.7	80.5	92.1	86.7	64.6
1967/68		111.0	183.1	120.8	112.8	85.6	94.4	97.6	89.0	70.1
1968/69		130.0	198.1	142.0	115.9	104.3	109.1	126.9	118.0	80.7
1969	July	127.0	179.2	143.6	114.9	106.3	101.8	129.4	116.2	75.9
	August	131.1	176.0	145.9	114.7	109.9	102.8	132.3	120.1	74.8
	September	133.6	183.5	145.9	112.6	113.2	100.5	132.5	117.6	75.8
	October	140.4	192.4	146.5	108.6	118.2	100.8	140.6	125.0	75.9
	November	139.5	187.1	143.9	107.9	120.2	102.2	141.7	126.7	75.4
	December	136.2	185.7	140.3	103.0	121.1	101.0	133.8	121.3	74.9
1970	January	141.9	194.0	145.3	106.2	132.9	100.0	140.5	126.8	81.8
	February	147.8	185.6	151.0	110.4	150.3	105.8	141.7	130.4	82.2
	March	148.1	180.6	151.1	106.6	147.8	106.3	151.6	127.2	80.3
	April	148.3	173.5	149.7	104.2	149.9	104.1	152.8	128.6	81.0
	May	143.0	168.6	149.1	98.1	141.6	99.4	146.1	126.9	74.6
	June	139.2	172.0	144.8	97.8	135.4	95.7	142.9	122.0	71.1

TABLE IX

General Index of Share Prices (Contd.)

(Base : 1959/60 = 100)

Period		Transport and Communications	Paper & Board	Tobacco	Miscellaneous			
					Chemicals	Tea	Sugar & Allied Industries	Others
1965/66		106.7	109.4	133.5	84.4	117.5	93.0	61.1
1966/67		101.8	109.1	158.6	83.8	128.2	92.7	60.9
1967/68		104.3	104.3	199.2	88.4	165.4	88.5	65.0
1968/69		154.3	116.4	216.3	110.0	215.2	100.3	73.2
1969	July	107.1	115.7	188.1	110.3	186.9	101.4	70.0
	August	170.8	117.9	241.9	115.2	194.0	106.4	69.9
	September	173.2	112.0	264.8	116.4	195.6	105.1	71.0
	October	191.5	119.7	284.7	118.4	215.5	114.4	72.8
	November	192.2	116.0	278.2	118.1	211.2	117.2	71.4
	December	180.5	116.7	268.9	115.7	212.2	120.8	73.2
1970	January	182.2	118.8	270.8	116.8	216.3	132.6	75.7
	February	199.5	125.8	284.8	123.7	220.2	143.2	79.3
	March	213.9	124.4	260.8	123.5	218.1	142.3	80.6
	April	217.4	136.0	259.4	127.0	217.0	141.2	81.8
	May	207.1	128.9	263.5	121.8	206.0	131.9	82.2
	June	191.9	129.2	259.0	121.6	186.7	128.3	79.4

Note.—For detailed methodology see State Bank of Pakistan publication, *Index Nos. of Stock Exchange Securities.*

Source : State Bank of Pakistan.

TABLE X

STATE BANK OF PAKISTAN

Profit and Loss Account for the Year Ended June 30, 1970

INCOME	Rs.
Interest, Discount, Exchange, Commission, etc.	221,035,949
EXPENDITURE	
Establishment	46,386,209
Directors' and Local Board Members' Fees and Expenses	172,105
Auditors' Fees	15,000
Rent, Taxes, Insurance, Lighting, etc.	2,939,436
Law Charges	162,627
Postage and Telegram Charges	424,687
Remittance of Treasure	947,311
Stationery, etc.	1,099,648
Security Printing (Cheques, Note Forms, etc.)	5,960,382
Depreciation and Repairs to Banks's Property	6,968,388
Agency Charges	2,037,116
Contributions to Staff and Superannuation Funds	Nil
Miscellaneous Expenses	14,322,438
Net Available Balance	139,600,602
TOTAL	221,035,949
ACCOUNT OF NET AVAILABLE BALANCE	
Amount transferred to the Reserve Fund	Nil
Amount set aside for payment of Dividend at 7 per cent p.a.	2,100,000
Amount transferred to Rural Credit Fund	25,000,000
Amount transferred to Industrial Credit Fund	20,000,000
Surplus payable to the Central Government	92,500,602
Balance carried forward	Nil
TOTAL	139,600,602

RESERVE FUND ACCOUNT	Rs.
By Balance on June 30, 1969	147,500,000
By Transfer from Profit and Loss Account	Nil
TOTAL	147,500,000

Source : State Bank of Pakistan.

TABLE
Balance Sheet
ISSUE

LIABILITIES		
	Rs.	Rs.
Notes held in the Banking Department	105,099,111	
Notes in circulation	7,040,320,872	
Total Notes Issued		7,145,419,983
TOTAL LIABILITIES		7,145,19,983

Note :—Gold has been valued at 0.186621 gram of fine gold per rupee as provided in Section 30 (2) of the State Bank of Pakistan Act, 1956, as amended in September.

...KI
...as at 30th June, 1970
...DEPARTMENT

ASSETS	Rs.	Rs.
I. A. *Gold Coin and Bullion*	254,530,001	
Silver Bullion	Nil	
Special Drawing Rights held with the International Monetary Fund	Nil	
Approved Foreign Exchange	730,780,935	
India notes representing assets receivable from the Reserve Bank of India	273,153,985	1,258,464,921
B. *Rupee Coin*	68,249,191	
Government of Pakistan Securities	5,364,654,706	
Internal Bills of Exchange and other Commercial paper	406,100,000	5,839,003,897
II. Held with the Reserve Bank of India pending transfer to Pakistan :		
Gold Coin and Bullion	1,902,102	
Sterling Securities	37,767,959	
Government of India Securities	6,407,460	
Rupee Coin	1,873,644	47,951,165
TOTAL ASSETS		7,145,419,983

TABLE XI

STATE BANK OF PAKISTAN

Balance Sheet as at June 30, 1970 (Contd.)

BANKING DEPARTMENT

LIABILITIES	Rs.	ASSETS	Rs.
Capital Paid-up	30,000,000	Notes	105,099,111
Reserve Fund	147,500,000	Rupee Coin	5,964
Rural Credit Fund	150,000,000	Subsidiary Coin	66,611
Industrial Credit Fund	90,000,000	Bills Purchased and Discounted:	
Deposits :		(a) Internal	504,948,082
(a) Central Government	268,865,005	(b) External	88,558,729
(b) Provincial Government	26,935,679	(c) Government Treasury Bills	18,915,127
(c) Banks	935,616,861		
(d) Others	1,408,905,581	*Balances held outside Pakistan	290,896,977
Allocation of Special Drawing Rights	150,399,849	Special Drawing Rights held with the International Monetary Fund	56,965,967
		Loans and Advances to Governments	4,700,000
Bills Payable	4,230,632	Provincial Governments' Debtor Balances	70,308,939
		**Other Loans and Advances	666,274,730
Other Liabilities	343,684,898	Investments	1,380,589,029
		Other Assets	368,809,239
TOTAL LIABILITIES	3,556,138,505	TOTAL ASSETS	3,556,138,505

NOTES :— *Includes Cash and Short-Term Securities.

**This includes an amount of Rs. 3,88,67,999 debited to Suspense Account, being the difference in exchange on remittances to India through our Main Account with the Reserve Bank of India and will be covered when this account is written up in their Books in terms of Clause VI of the Payments Agreement with India.

TABLE XII

Statement of the Position of Scheduled Banks as at November 26, 1970

1. *Demand Liabilities in Pakistan*	
(i) Deposits (General)	5,929,574,000
(ii) Deposits from banks	612,922,000
(iii) Borrowings from banks	159,020,000
(iv) Other demand liabilities	388,199,000
2. *Time Liabilities in Pakistan*	
(i) Deposits (General)	7,038,597,000
(ii) Deposits from banks	208,757,000
(iii) Borrowings from banks	73,503,000
(iv) Other Time Liabilities	115,909,000
3. *Borrowings from the State Bank of Pakistan*	
(a) Against Usance Bills	735,819,000
(b) Against Promissory Notes	839,755.000
(c) Against approved securities	247,125,000
(d) Other borrowings	143,655,000
4. *Cash in Pakistan* :	
(a) Pakistan Notes	319,524,000
(b) Pakistan Rupee Coin	20,088,000
(c) Pakistan Subsidiary Coin	4,128,000
5. *Balances with the State Bank*	
(a) Principal Office	473,105,000
(b) Other Offices and Branches	278,639,000
6. Balances with other banks in current account in Pakistan	57,461,000
7. Money at call and short notice in Pakistan	596,337,000
8. *Investments (at Book Value)* :	
(a) In Central Government Securities including Treasury Bills	2,016,531,000
(b) In Provincial Governments Securities including Treasury Bills	747,536,000

TABLE XII (Contd.)

(c) In other approved securities	677,382,000
(d) In others	293,290,000
9. *Credit Provided in Pakistan*	
(i) Advances except those to other banks	11,290,584,000
(ii) Advances to other banks	293,879,000
(iii) Inland Bills purchased and discounted in Pakistan	328,265,000
(iv) Foreign Bills purchased and discounted in Pakistan	364,699,000
(v) Inland Bills sold to or rediscounted with the State Bank of Pakistan not yet matured and not included in (iii) above	16,700,000
(vi) Foreign Bills sold to or rediscounted with the State Bank of Pakistan not yet matured and not included in (iv) above	71,866,000

Source : State Bank of Pakistan

Note : The statement does not include the figures of Scheduled Banks of Indian origin in Pakistan.

Foreign Trade and Balance of Payments

WITH THE HELP of policies indicated below, Pakistan was able to achieve some improvement in its foreign trade situation between 1964/65 and 1967/68 by reducing its balance of trade deficit from Rs. 2,966 million to Rs. 1,307 million—a reduction of 56 per cent within three years, which meant that in 1967/68 Pakistan financed well over 70 per cent of its imports from its export earnings. However, due to unsettled conditions and a series of disturbances and strikes during the latter half of 1968/69, this trend received a setback. Other factors, some of which were influenced by this situation, also played a role in retarding the growth of exports: a slowing down of industrial production, lowered production of some primary goods, increased domestic consumption of a number of commodities, and a reduction in the volume of foreign loans and credits.

In 1968/69, although exports of Pakistani produce increased by about 3.7 per cent, total exports, including re-exports, declined by Rs. 42.8 million, while imports increased by Rs. 242.9 million, so that the balance of trade deficit amounted to Rs. 1,591.2 million. In 1969/70, exports grew by less than 1.0 per cent, whereas imports increased by over 4.1 per cent, and the deficit thus amounted to Rs.1,761 million, so that the country was able to finance only about 65 per cent of its imports with its export earnings.

During the Third Plan period as a whole, exports (excluding re-exports) increased by about 36.6 per cent against the ambitious Plan target of 62.0 per cent—or in terms of cumulative annual growth, about 6.5 per cent against the Plan target of about 10 per cent (including invisible earnings, an annual growth of 9.5 per cent for a total growth of 57.4 per cent). On the other hand, a heartening feature of the export trade during this period has been the

increasing share of manufactured and semi-manufactured goods from 31.1 to 59.3 per cent.

In terms of the regional position of foreign trade, while total exports of the two wings of the country over the five-year period of 1965/66-1969/70 were of about the same level, at Rs. 7,785.6 million for East Pakistan and Rs. 7,835.5 million for West Pakistan—due to a more rapid rise of exports from the West at 46.3 per cent against 32.3 per cent in the East—the picture of imports continues to show a heavy preponderence of imports for West Pakistan at 67.2 per cent of total imports for the period as a whole and 64.4 per cent in 1969/70. A comparison of individual items of imports for the two regions shows that this difference is largely due to laıger imports meeting the needs of the more extensive and expanding industry and transport system in the Western Wing of the country.

Rational allocation and meticulous utilization of foreign exchange resources together form the first basic principle of Pakistan's trade policy. particularly in respect of the import of capital goods and raw materials to meet the demands of its growing industry and the expanding modernization of its agriculture. The promotion of exports to build up foreign exchange earnings is the second basic principle of this policy, which aims at minimizing dependence on foreign aid and improving the position of the country's balance of payments. And here again a positive balance is sought, not as some mystic virtue, but as a means of increasing the volume of capital imports essential for development.

Partly due to unsatisfactory terms of trade in the traditional markets and partly as a result of industrial growth in the country, Pakistan is looking for new sources of supply as well as new export markets to secure the best available terms of trade. Such diversification is intended to ensure better prices for indigenous primary products, bargain prices for capital goods, and a widening scope for the export of Pakistan's manufactured goods.

The balance of trade, however, still continues to be adverse for several reasons. First, the development programme necessitates heavy imports as inputs. Secondly, exports, though steadily rising, have yet to acquire a better volume and stability. Thirdly, the prices of foreign capital goods, particularly of machinery, are constantly increasing while the prices of Pakistan's primary products are subject to extreme fluctuations in the world market. A fourth factor of substantial food imports should be overcome soon, as the country is on the threshold of becoming self-sufficient in food.

Import Policy : The import policy of Pakistan, formulated on a half-yearly basis, has an industrial bias and is characterized by indirect controls which also serve the purpose of tariff protection. For administrative processing, imports are categorized under distinct heads :

—*Free List* of items which may be imported without a licence from Government.

—*Licensable List* of items which require an import licence.

—*Bonus List* of items which may be imported without a licence against Bonus Vouchers earned on exports or bought from the

market.

—*Cash-cum-Bonus List* of items for which importers pay partly in cash and partly in Bonus Vouchers.

—*Raw Material Replenishment Scheme*, which has replaced the *Export Performance Licensing List* of items for which import licences were given to exporting manufacturers.

—*Licence to Actual Users List* of technical and scientific books and laboratory equipment required by professional individuals or institutions of learning.

Export Policy : Since 1968, the Government announces its export policy at the beginning of the year on an annual basis, fixing itemwise targets. It provides for various measures designed to encourage and enlarge exports, including the following specific facilities :

Export Bonus Scheme : Introduced in 1959, this Scheme allowed a foreign exchange bonus on all exports except major primary commodities. Since July 10, 1970, it has been modified to cover all exports; and it has also been extended up to the end of the Fourth Five-Year Plan. Between 1960 and 1970 it was largely through the incentives provided by this Scheme that manufactured exports increased by 276 per cent, while total exports rose by little over 80 per cent.

Export Credit Guarantee Scheme : Introduced in 1962, this Scheme protects exporters against commercial and political risks and is scheduled to continue till 1975. It covers 80 per cent of the losses that may be incurred on account of commercial risks, and 85 per cent of the losses that may be incurred on account of political risks.

Export Market Development Fund : Created in 1966, the Fund finances projects relating to the survey of foreign markets, designing of products, opening of display centres and information offices abroad, exchange of delegations, organization of exhibitions, liberal import licensing for export-oriented industries, and credit facilities for exports.

The Trading Corporation of Pakistan : Established in 1967, the Corporation serves as commission agent for importers and exporters to arrange big transactions, especially with socialist countries.

The Export Promotion Bureau of the Ministry of Commerce : Created in 1963, the Bureau is a high-powered body that deals with problems of the export trade. It also co-ordinates activities of various official and unofficial organizations concerned with important export commodities.

Other Export Promotion Measures : these include participation in international trade fairs; exchange of trade delegations; bilateral trade agreements; agreements with industrialized countries for export quotas of important finished products like cotton textiles and jute goods; standardization of export

products; participation in international trade conferences.

Composition of Foreign Trade : The composition of exports and imports has been changing significantly. The ratio of capital goods in total imports has been substantially increased from 38 per cent in 1960/61 to well over 50 per cent in 1969/70, while during the same period the ratio of consumer goods was brought down from 29 per cent to little over 16 per cent.

Similarly, while the over-all export of raw materials has maintained a sound position, the share of manufactures in total exports has risen from 28 per cent in 1959/60 to 34 per cent in 1964/65, and then to over 59 per cent in 1969/70. It may further be noted that between 1964/65 and 1969/70, while there has been some decline in the value of primary products exported, the value of manufactured exports has more than doubled from Rs. 817 million to Rs. 1,945.7 million.

The substantial development in the export of manufactured goods is due to various incentives provided to both manufacturers and exporters, ensuring a parallel growth of suitable output and of export markets. The restrictive monetary policy pursued by the State Bank of Pakistan has also helped to contain domestic demand and encourage exports. Major increase in the exports of manufactured goods have taken place in relation to manufactures of jute, cotton textiles, art silk, cotton yarn and a number of miscellaneous items.

Furthermore, the reduction in the proportion of consumer imports has also been made possible by a fair measure of success in the country's programme of import substitution. For instance, because of the establishment of refineries and blending plants within the country, most of the requirements of petroleum products are now met locally, and the country imports more crude oil than finished petroleum products. Among other consumption goods now manufactured on a large scale in Pakistan, mention may be made of such items as fertilizer, paper, pharmaceuticals, plastics, electrical goods, bicycles, tyres and tubes, sewing machines, etc. A beginning has also been made in the production of such light capital goods as machine tools, spare parts, agricultural implements and electrical motors, and of industrial raw materials like art silk fibre, basic materials for plastic and paper industries, dyes and chemicals.

For the future it is anticipated that while the imports of consumer goods and light machinery will continue to decline, those of heavy capital goods and industrial raw materials will show a massive rising trend, for which export earnings must also be raised substantially. In the final analysis, reasonably favourable international trade policies and practices—based on the objective of a symbiotic pattern of trade in manufactured goods—can do far more to meet the needs of developing countries than aid by itself can ever achieve. And this would naturally also redound to the advantage of advanced countries in the form of larger and richer markets for their capital goods and specialized equipment.

Balance of Payments : The balance of payments position has been under considerable strain during the past few years. There is a chronic deficit on the current account which is offset mainly by long-term loans on the capital account and on transfer payments. This deficit is to a considerable extent the result of food and development imports. Food imports should soon no longer be needed, and foreign loan requirements are also to be reduced over the long range through expanded exports. But the immediate objective remains to ensure the level of capital inflow necessary to finance the development programme (also see chapter on International Economic Co-operation).

TABLE I

Foreign Trade

1964/65-1969/70

(Value in million rupees)

Year	Imports			Exports (including re-exports)		
	Pakistan	East Pakistan	West Pakistan	Pakistan	East Pakistan	West Pakistan
1964/65	5,374.2	1,701.8	3,672.4	2,407.7	1,268.1	1,139.6
1965/66	4,208.4	1,328.1	2,880.3	2,717.7	1,514.1	1,203.6
1966/67	5,192.2	1,566.6	3,625.6	2,912.7	1,574.6	1,338.1
1967/68	4,654.7	1,327.5	3,327.2	3,348.2	1,484.1	1,864.1
1968/69	4,896.6	1,850.0	3,046.6	3,305.4	1,542.7	1,762.7
1969/70	5,098.1	1,813.0	3,285.1	3,337.1	1,670.1	1,667.0

Source : Central Statistical Office.

TABLE II

Major Exports

(Excluding Re-exports)

1964/65-1969/70

(Million rupees)

Items	1964/65	1965/66	1966/67	1967/68[1]	1968/69	1969/70[2]
A. Primary Products						
1. Raw jute	845.4	863.2	870.2	758.9	734.4	762.4
2. Raw cotton	287.0	278.4	290.6	441.8	364.1	210.6
3. Hides and skins	35.3	30.4	11.6	7.0	4.1	2.3
4. Raw wool	58.7	60.4	31.5	37.0	41.4	26.6
5. Tea	10.1	11.0	0.8	0.2	—	—
6. Fish	85.0	47.7	60.8	53.4	76.1	89.8
7. Rice	120.3	132.5	175.9	149.4	155.2	93.9
8. Other primary products	137.0	181.3	156.9	210.0	176.8	140.1
Total A :	1,578.8	1,604.9	1,598.3	1,657.7	1,552.1	1,325.7
B. Manufactures						
1. Cotton yarn and piece goods	272.2	254.2	276.9	461.5	499.4	538.1
2. Jute manufactures	300.7	572.5	581.0	617.1	674.5	787.3
3. Leather and leather goods	58.7	100.7	128.1	128.0	196.1	169.3[3]
4. Other manufactures	185.0	158.7	286.6	260.2	317.7	451.0
Total B :	816.6	1,086.1	1,272.6	1,466.8	1,687.7	1,945.7
GRAND TOTAL	2,395.4	2,691.9	2,870.9	3,124.5	3,239.8	3,271.4

[1] It is also to be noted that in 1967/68 West Pakistan's export earnings for the first time rose to over 50 per cent of the total export earnings (Rs. 1,645 million representing 53 per cent). In 1960/61 East Pakistan's share in total export earnings had been 70 per cent, and in 1964/65, 53 per cent.

[2] Provisional.

[3] Leather only.

Source : Central Statistical Office.

TABLE III

Major Imports

1964/65-1969/70

(Million rupees)

Items	1964/65	1965/66	1966/67	1967/68	1968/69	1969/70[1]
1. Chemicals	107.5	54.6	99.2	86.1	110.1	138.0
2. Drugs and medicines	115.8	71.4	81.6	76.2	91.9	94.5
3. Dyes and colours	117.6	64.4	87.6	62.2	80.1	62.1
4. Electrical machinery	329.1	314.1	302.1	302.0	335.3	338.8
5. Non-electrical machinery and transport equipment	1,472.6	1,399.6	1,429.2	1,472.0	1,481.4	1,090.4
6. Paper and office stationery	46.3	51.4	73.8	51.9	48.3	47.1
7. Rubber manufactures	69.8	40.1	43.6	38.6	57.5	66.2
8. Iron and steel and manufactures	877.8	475.8	636.6	412.4	675.0	627.1
9. Non-ferrous metals and manufactures	106.2	68.6	152.7	181.3	80.5	77.7
10. Mineral oils	125.5	147.0	259.1	245.5	265.3	259.1
11. Vegetable oils	204.7	160.6	94.4	144.2	122.7	261.9
12. Grain, pulses and flour	680.3	368.9	770.7	620.4	363.3	444.2
13. Other imports	1,121.0	991.8	1,161.7	962.0	1,185.2	1,591.0
Total :	5,374.2	4,208.3	5,192.3	4,654.8	4,896.6	5,098.1

[1] Provisional.

Source : Central Statistical Office.

TABLE IV

Balance of Payments

1966/67-1969/70

A. Goods and Services and Transfer of Payments

(Million rupees)

Item	1967/68			1968/69			1969/70 (July-Dec.)		
	Credit	Debit	Net Credit(+) Debit(–)	Credit	Debit	Net Credit(+) Debit(–)	Credit	Debit	Net Credit(+) Debit(–)
A. Goods and Services	3,355.5	6,365.8	–3,010.3	3,696.9	6,266.0	–2,569.0	1,745.7	3,012.1	–1,266.4
1. Merchandise	2,841.0	5,027.1	–2,186.1	3,123.4	4,575.1	–1,451.7	1,413.0	2,279.4	–866.4
2. Non-monetary gold	2.2	—	+2.2	—	—	—	—	—	—
3. Freight and insurance on international shipments	2.9	479.8	–476.9	4.6	476.3	–471.7	2.8	229.9	–227.1
(i) Freight	1.8	449.5	–447.7	0.8	447.3	–446.4	—	214.0	–214.0
(ii) Insurance	1.0	30.0	–29.1	3.6	28.9	–25.2	2.8	15.9	–13.1
4. Other transportation	101.7	92.7	+9.0	135.2	138.8	–3.7	84.8	69.2	+15.6
5. Travel	26.5	41.3	–14.9	28.2	58.0	–29.6	22.1	21.5	+0.6
6. Investment income	37.4	335.0	–297.5	76.6	479.8	–403.2	100.7	241.1	–140.4
7. Government, not included elsewhere	132.8	214.9	–82.1	130.4	392.6	–262.3	62.7	116.7	–52.4
8. Other services	210.8	174.9	+36.0	198.6	145.3	+53.3	59.7	54.3	+5.4
(i) Non-merchandise insurance	4.4	30.9	–26.3	12.9	30.1	–17.1	3.2	13.2	–10.0
(ii) Others	206.5	144.0	+62.5	185.7	115.3	+70.5	56.5	41.1	+15.4
B. Transfer Payments	1,430.6	30.0	+1,400.6	1,099.9	68.9	+1,031.0	443.7	38.8	+404.9
9. Private	295.1	30.0	+265.1	502.2	30.9	+471.2	276.7	14.7	+262.1
10. Central Government	1,135.5	—	+1,135.5	597.7	37.9	+559.8	166.9	24.1	+142.8
Total (A+B)	4,786.1	6,395.8	–1,609.7	4,796.8	6,334.9	–1,538.0	2,189.4	3,050.9	–861.5

TABLE IV (Contd.)

B. Movements of Capital and Monetary Gold

(Million rupees)

Item	1967/68			1968/69			1969/70 (July-Dec.)		
	Changes in		Net Position	Changes in		Net Position	Changes in		Net Position
	Assets	Liabilities		Assets	Liabilities		Assets	Liabilities	
C. Capital and Monetary Gold	+7.2	−1,691.0	+1,698.2	−664.6	−2,343.8	+1,679.3	−158.0	−1,040.4	+882.3
11. Private long-term (including all direct investment)	+3.9	−195.4	+199.3	+8.9	−289.8	+298.6	+9.6	−165.1	+174.7
12. Private short-term (other than direct investment)	+9.2	+2.3	+6.8	−0.1	−0.1	—	—	+8.4	−8.4
13. Local Government	—	+34.6	+34.6	—	−219.1	+219.1	—	−247.7	+247.7
14. Central Government	−55.6	−1,391.7	+1,336.1	−110.6	−1,573.5	+1,462.8	−103.3	−505.6	+402.4
(i) Long-term loans	—	−1,391.7	+1,391.7	—	−1,573.5	+1,573.5	—	−505.6	+505.6
(ii) Other long-term assets and liabilities	−40.5	—	−40.5	−122.8	..	−122.8	−89.3	..	−89.3
(iii) Other short-term assets and liabilities	−15.2	—	−15.2	+12.1	..	+12.1	−13.9	—	−13.9
15. Central Monetary Institutions	−128.4	+7.4	−135.7	−521.0	−266.0	−254.9	−88.2	−103.6	+15.4
(i) Accounts with I.M.F.	—	+9.8	−9.8	—	−123.3	+123.3	—	−105.3	+105.3
(ii) Marketable assets	−96.1	—	−96.1	−267.3	—	−267.3	+113.9	—	+113.9
(iii) Deposits	−29.9	−2.6	−27.4	−253.6	−142.8	−110.7	−202.1	+1.6	−203.8
(iv) Gold	−2.2	—	−2.2	—	—	—	—	—	—
16. Other Monetary Institutions	+178.0	−79.1	+257.0	−41.9	+4.5	−46.4	+23.8	−26.6	+50.4
(i) Deposits	−13.0	−75.3	+62.3	−44.3	+3.8	−48.3	+34.6	−26.6	+61.3
(ii) Other foreign assets and liabilities	+191.0	−3.8	+194.7	+2.5	+0.7	+1.9	−10.8	..	−10.8
17. *D. Errors and Omissions*	−88.4	—	−88.4	−141.2	—	−141.2	−20.8	—	−20.8

— Nil.

.. Amount less than Rs. 50,000.

Source: State Bank of Pakistan.

Note—Pakistan adopted the compilation of balance of payments in accordance with the revised I.M.F. manual (1961 edition) with effect from July 1964. Totals and sub-totals may exhibit minor differences due to separate rounding of figures.

TABLE V

Estimated Balance of Payments and Financing, 1965-70

(Million rupees)

Item	1965/66	1966/67	1967/68	1968/69	1969/70	Total 1965-70
A. Payments						
1. Merchandise	4,149	5,228	5,115	4,621	5,307	24,420
2. Invisibles	1,350	1,400	1,400	1,500	1,600	7,250
3. Debt Servicing	411	516	711	732	800	3,170
Total	5,910	7,144	7,226	6,853	7,707	34,840
B. Financing						
1. Own Earnings	3,415	3,485	3,651	4,200	4,250	19,001
2. External Resources	2,778	3,242	3,491	3,095	3,307	15,913
3. Changes in Reserves and Errors and Omission.	–283	417	84	442	–150	–74
TOTAL	5,910	7,144	7,226	6,853	7,707	34,840

Source : *The Fourth Five-Year Plan, 1970-75.*

TABLE VI

Bonus Exports

(Million rupees)

Year	Amount	Percentage increase
1959	551.6	—
1960	665.2	20.6
1961	724.7	8.9
1962	775.9	7.1
1963	889.4	14.6
1964	1,007.9	13.3
1965	1,078.3	7.0
1966	1,461.9	36.0
1967	1,498.3	2.5
1968	1,960.2	30.8
1969	2,515.8	28.3

Source : Central Statistical Office.

International Economic Co-operation

As IN MOST other developing countries, the foreign exchange earnings of Pakistan, too, have not been sufficient to meet the ever increasing requirements of foreign exchange resources for imports and other investments that are essential for the development of the country's economy and its expanding social welfare demands. Thus during the Third Plan period, the average annual foreign exchange earnings (including invisibles) of the country stood at about $790 million as against average annual payments amounting to about $1,290 million. It is to bridge this kind of gap that Pakistan has been receiving international economic assistance since the commencement of the Colombo Plan in 1950. Due to a number of unfavourable circumstances at the beginning of the Third Plan period there has been a shortfall of about 20 per cent in anticipated international aid—estimated actual disbursements amounting to $2,397 million as compared with the Plan projection of $3,000 million (including uncommitted pledges and foreign private investment).

While at its present stage of development Pakistan both greatly needs and appreciates such international assistance; it does at the same time feel that its base of self-reliance must be strengthened, and that the climate of international assistance and its costs also make it desirable to reduce dependence on such aid. Accordingly, the component of international assistance has been cut down progressively from 48 per cent (which a later revision of resources raised to about 57 per cent) of the total planned expenditure in the First Plan to about 35 per cent in the Second Plan and then to 27.5 per cent in the Third Plan (including private foreign investment). According to the Perspective Plan, the aim is to eliminate dependence on international assistance as a major item by 1985.

The terms *international assistance* or *foreign economic aid* are used

to cover all types of unilateral transfer, generally comprising : private foreign capital, various types of loans—including those repayable in local currency, untied loans, and loans tied by country—, money grants, commodity grants, and export credits of more than a certain duration. The inclusion of private capital as aid is justified because of the valuable foreign exchange and technical experience it brings into a developing economy. Apart from the obvious non-commercial aspect of public loans, many of them have a significant grant element, and some border on grants.

The loan portion of such assistance naturally imposes a burden on the country's balance of payments; but so long as such assistance is obtained on reasonable terms and is judiciously utilized, it also helps to develop the capacity to earn more foreign exchange and thus in fact reduces this burden. It is further to be noted that while Pakistan is paying interest on such loans at an average rate of no more than 2.5 per cent on outstanding external credits (over $2,597 million at December 31, 1969), the national income return on such borrowings, according to the Planning Commission, amounts to $33 per $100 obtained from abroad. The situation is similar to that of a good commercial or industrial enterprise which borrows capital to enlarge the scope of its business or production and is able to pay both interest and capital by proper amortization in the course of its expansion.

Aid provided in the form of grants has diminished from over 67 per cent of total aid received up to 1955 to less than 7 per cent of aid received during the Third Plan period (1965-70). Currently, only technical assistance and emergency relief is provided on a grant basis. On the other hand, total assistance increased enormously between the First and the Second Five-Year Plan from $ 990 million to $ 2,365 million (grant component), $ 342 million), and this undoubtedly played a major role in the success of the Second Plan.

International assistance currently received by Pakistan falls under four broad categories :

(i) *project aid*, comprising mainly capital goods and other machinery for the implementation of development projects;

(ii) *technical assistance*, which provides the services of experts, consultants, training facilities for Pakistanis and equipment for training, demonstration and research purposes.

(iii) *non-project or commodity aid*, comprising mainly raw materials, machinery and accessories for existing industries; chemical fertilizers and agricultural machinery; food-grains, including the well-known Public Law (PL-480) shipments from the U.S.A; other essential supplies and emergency aid in natural disasters;

(iv) *counterpart funds* in rupees generated by the sale of U.S. and Canadian commodities which are used to meet the rupee cost of agreed development projects.

Sources of Aid : The first technical assistance agreement was signed with the U.S.A. on February 2, 1951; and the first project loan agreement was signed on March 27, 1952, for $ 27.2 million with the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD)—popularly also referred to as the World Bank—followed by a commodity loan agreement with the Export/

Import Bank of Washington in September 1952. Since then sources of assistance have been expanding. The United States and the Pakistan Consortium (Aid to Pakistan Club) contribute the major share of foreign assistance. But aid received from socialist countries in the form of soft loans has been increasing rapidly in recent years, following the first USSR offer of creditin 1960, amounting to 27 million roubles ($30 million) for oil exploration, and the first Chinese aid in February 1965, in the form of an interest-free loan of $60 million. A classification of grant and loan assistance between 1950 and 1969 is given in Table I, and according to source of asistance, in Table II. Next to the United States, the biggest grant has come from Canada and the biggest loan from Germany (currently repayable over 20 years at an interest rate of 3 per cent).

Total pledges of assistance made during the Third Plan period, after delays caused by the postponement of the Consortium meeting in 1965, amounted to $ 2,339 million, of which $ 1,700 million came through the Consortium and $639 million from outside it, including $ 179.9 million from Consortium sources in pledges outside the Consortium (see Table IV). Against the Plan projections of $ 2,850 million in fresh pledges (including uncommitted pledges, $ 3,000 million), these pledges represent a shortfall of about 18 per cent. Actually, the shortfall in pledges from Consortium sources (totalling $ 1,880 million against a projection of $ 2,700 million) amounted to over 30 per cent, which has been compensated for only by the unexpected but welcome size of pledges from non-Consortium sources, totalling $ 459.2 million against the plan projection of only $150 million. (The position of lending countries and agencies is given in Tables V A and B).

In terms of commitments, the position was slightly better because of the availability of $ 309 million in uncommitted pledges at the beginning of the Plan period, as against a projected availability of only $ 150 million. Total commitments are estimated at $ 2,384 million, about 16 per cent short of Plan expectations.

Aid disbursements up to December 31, 1969, amount to $ 2,306 million, about 23 per cent short of the Plan projection of $ 3,000 million (estimates for the full period up to 30 June, 1970, indicate a total disbursement of $2,397 million, with a shortfall of about 20 per cent—see source note to Table IV). Although substantial credits were secured from non-Consortium sources, the impact of these credits is not reflected in the level of disbursements in the Plan period because many of these are for large projects with somewhat longer gestation periods.

Estimates of non-project disbursement amount to a total of $846 million and of project aid to $ 1,460 million, with respective shortfalls on Plan projections of 27 and 20 per cent. However, up to May 13, 1970, together with non-Plan loans for Tarbela Dam in West Pakistan, totalling $ 136.96 million, the total project aid contracted is estimated at $ 1,548 million. Of this amount, as shown in Table VI, zonal allocations were distributed as follows: East Pakistan, $ 488.941 million; West Pakistan, $ 611.921 million for Plan projects and $ 136.96 for the Tarbela Dam. Of the remaining amount of $310.522 million at May 13, 1970: $ 122.036 million were unallocated, $ 86.587

were allocated to the Centre and $ 101.899 million to common projects.

Consortium and Non-Consortium Sources : At present most foreign economic assistance is channelled through the Pakistan Consortium organized in 1960 by the World Bank. It now consists of 10 countries—Belgium, Canada, France, West Germany, Italy, Japan, the Netherlands, Sweden, U.K., U.S.A.—and the World Bank, the International Development Association (IDA), which is an affiliate of the World Bank, and the Asian Development Bank (ADB).

The Consortium members generally meet once a year to take stock of Pakistan's implementation of its development programme and next year's requirements of foreign exchange. On the basis of this, they decide the volume of assistance that its members are prepared to offer, and this offer is known as a 'pledge'. Later, each member country individually selects the projects it would like to finance, and settles the terms for financing these projects through bilateral agreements with Pakistan. The sum thus agreed constitutes a 'commitment'. Implementation of the projects begins after commitment agreements, and the disbursement of funds follows.

The United States has provided the largest volume of economic assistance, and its total obligations up to December 1969, including PL 480, amount to well over $4,000 million, exceeding the combined total for all other sources. (Excluding the PL-480 and certain other forms of assistance, such as that of the Ford Foundation, the total amounts to $ 2,670 million, as given in Table II). This help has come from a variety of agencies, funds and private foundations, including the Agency for International Development (AID), the Development Loan Fund (whose dollar loans are repayable in rupees), the Export Bank of Washington (Eximbank, which has helped finance the Inter-Continental hotels in Pakistan and foreign exchange requirements of small-scale industries through the Industrial Development Bank of Pakistan), the Ford Foundation (which has provided significant grant assistance, particularly in the field of education and research), and PL-480, about which a little more needs to be said because of its unique nature.

The PL-480 (Public Law 480) programme covers imports of surplus US agricultural commodities provided by or through the U.S. Department of Agriculture: Title I provisions of this programme comprise sales against payment in rupees; Title II, emergency grants and sales, including ocean freight paid by AID; Title III, relief grants, handled by four voluntary distributing agencies. However, from the year 1967/68 a portion (up to 80 per cent) of the cost of PL-480 under Title I will have to be paid for in dollars, instalments being due 10 years after the date of the last delivery of commodities in each calendar year. The outstanding amount carries interest at 2 per cent during the first 10 years and 2.5 per cent during the next 30 years. In 1969/70 Pakistan has concluded agreements for the purchase of agricultural surpluses in convertible local currency credit and local currency terms for a total of $ 86.9 million, compared with $ 125 million in 1964/65 and $ 175 million in 1967/68. Apart from 8 per cent of the Pakistan rupee payments to be used for US expenditure, the remainder is made available as grants (22

per cent) and loans (70 per cent) for economic development programmes in Pakistan. Commodity imports for 1968/69 are given in Table VII.

Non-Consortium countries negotiate aid and loan agreements on an entirely bilateral basis. Following initial talks, they conclude 'frame agreements, pledging the assistance they are prepared to offer; then they select projects and make commitments to finance them. Some Consortium countries also conclude similar agreements outside the framework of the Consortium. Headed by the USSR, Yugoslavia and China, the socialist countries are most prominent in the non-Consortium sources. Also included among these sources is another affiliate of the World Bank, the International Finance Corporation (IFC), which in all its Pakistani investments associates itself with the Pakistan Industrial Credit and Investment Corporation.

External Indebtedness : The total external debt contracted, disbursed and outstanding, both in the public and the private sectors up to December 31, 1969, is summarized in Table VIII.

The character of the external debt varies from such interest-free loans as those of Denmark and China, repayable through exports, and soft loans of the IDA (service charge of 0.75 per cent), at one extreme, to short-term suppliers' or export credits, at the other. Some of these credits are for short periods of 5 to 7 years and carry high interest rates of up to 6.75 per cent. The terms for loans from the United States have hardened noticeably since they were first obtained in 1952, so that now, since 1962, most of the loans have to be repaid in foreign exchange at comparatively high rates of interest. Pakistan's external debt mostly comprises government-to-government loans. During the First Plan, while the proportion of export credits was high, the amount was relatively small. During the Second Plan period, the proportion of export credits fell to 14 per cent, but it again went up to about 26 per cent in the first two years of the Third Plan. This is a logical consequence of Pakistan's policy of diversification of the sources of foreign assistance, as East European credits are available mostly in the form of export credits, which are soft in the sense that at least 50 per cent of their amounts can be repaid in goods. The average of interest paid by Pakistan on outstanding external credits amounts to no more than 2.5 per cent—with 23.5 per cent of the total interest at between 0 to 1 per cent, another 23.5 per cent at over 1 to 3 per cent, 11.9 per cent at over 3 to 5 per cent, and 41.1 per cent at over 5 per cent on external credits contracted up to June 30, 1967. The amortization period for nearly 54 per cent of these credits is over 25 years and of about 21 per cent up to 10 years. The remainder are for varying periods between these two extremes.

The future of the climate of foreign economic assistance seems to be becoming less and less favourable. While the sources of foreign aid for Pakistan have multiplied, it is symbolic of the prevalent situation that in 1968 the World Bank, through two raises of 0.25 per cent each, increased its rate of interest from 6 to 6.5 per cent (the Bank itself secures loans from major world capital markets at 5.5 per cent interest). It was also feared

that the World Bank's lending might be cut drastically and that the terms for loans might become significantly harder.

The proportion of foreign exchange earnings absorbed by the debt service (amortization as well as interest) is presently about 19.2 per cent as against 3.6 per cent in 1960/61; but it still remains just within the capacity of the expanding economy of the country (Table IX gives details of the position). Up to 1968, the rise in this ratio to 13.5 per cent was mainly due to the sharply increasing quantity of external loans; but the further increase of 5.7 per cent in the last two years has also been caused by a slower rate of increase in export and other foreign exchange earnings—in fact involving a decline between 1968/69 and 1969/70. It is the latter situation that is making it difficult to manage the external debt. Acceleration of exports and foreign exchange earnings is thus an urgent need.

The Government's policy to maximize exports is not limited to maining the ability to repay loans; it also aims at reducing the requirement of external loans. It is for both these reasons that Pakistan has played a prominent part in the United Nations Conference of Trade and Development (UNTCAD), where efforts are being made to secure better terms of trade for the underdeveloped from the developed countries. Without such improved facilities, with which the consumer products, as well as the raw materials, of the former can find fair markets in the latter, the gap between rich and poor nations will continue to widen, and the poor will remain in a conditon of indebtedness so long as they have to continue to import most of their capital goods.

Pearson Commission Report : Taking note of the hardening terms of external loans and the resultant 'back-breaking burden' of debt servicing, the Pearson Commission in the middle of 1969 presented its report to the World Bank with the following 11 main recommendations in relation to both aid and trade :

A. Aid

1. "With the objectives of aid sharpened, a clear view should emerge of the need for external resources in developing countries. For the 1970's, studies of development requirements indicate that realistic development policies compatible with the 6 per cent target should give rise to a need for external resources, including both official aid and private investment, of the order of magnitude of 1 per cent of the GNP of the wealthier countries. We therefore recommend a 1 per cent target, to which the donor countries have long since committed themselves, and recommend that it be fully met by 1975, at the very latest."

There is, however, a special need for official development assistance on concessional terms, that is in the form of grants or loans on soft terms. This is what is properly referred to as aid. On the assumption that increases in aid can be more closely linked to efficient use and performance than hitherto, it recommended a substantial increase in official aid flows. Specifically, *official* development assistance should be raised to 0.70 per cent of

donor GNP by 1975, and in no case later than 1980. This compares with average flows of 0.39 per cent in 1968.

2. Aid providers should increase grants and capital subscriptions for multilateral development finance to a minimum of 20 per cent of the total flow of official development assistance by 1975.

3. Negotiations for the third replenishment of IDA should cover the period 1971-75, and contributions should reach the order of $ 1 billion by 1972 and $ 1.5 billion by 1975.

4. The Commission expressed the hope that it would be possible before 1974 to reach an agreement in principle for a more regular flow of capital into IDA, starting by 1975. In this context, three suggestions were put forward in tentative fashion. First, Governments of developed countries may wish to make available to IDA a part of the Special Drawing Right allocated to them by the IMF. Secondly, Governments of developed countries with budgetary problems may wish to make their contributions to IDA in the form of interest-free loans with 50 years maturity, rather than of grants. Thirdly, contributions to IDA may be tied to a portion of the interest payments that developing countries make to Governments of Part I IDA members (i.e. the high-income industrialized countries).

5. The Commission expressed the view that institutions such as the IBRD and regional development banks should have no difficulty in tapping private capital markets for funds, provided Governments of industrialized countries remove such impediments as exist there. But while the supply of funds at ruling interest rates may be plentiful, there may well be difficulties on the demand side. The extension of loans at interest rates of 6-7 per cent may jeopardize the credit-worthiness and balance of payments position of developing countries. Accordingly, the Commission recommended that industrialized countries commit the equivalent of one-half or more of the interest receipts due to them on official bilateral loans from developing countries, and make these available to the World Bank for subsidizing the interest rate on IBRD lending.

B. Trade

1. Developed countries should eliminate as soon as possible excise and import duties on non-competing products of special interest to the developing countries.

2. Developed countries should draw up plans in respect of protected commodities, designed to assure that over a period of time an increasing share of domestic consumption is supplied by imports from developing countries.

3. Discussions should be expedited leading to a programme of supplementary finance to deal with problems caused by unexpected and sustained shortfalls in the export earnings of developing countries.

4. Financing of reasonable buffer stocks in support of well-conceived commodity agreements and policies should be recognized as a legitimate object of foreign aid.

5. No new quantitative restrictions should be imposed on products of special interest to developing countries, and all existing quantitative restrictions on these products should be abolished during the 1970's as rapidly as possible.

6. Developed countries should establish a generalized non-reciprocal scheme of preferences for manufactured and semi-manufactured goods produced by developing countries before the end of the 1970's.

International Technical Assistance: The United Nation's aid to under-developed countries began in 1948, under a programme of technical assistance. In 1950 it was supplemented by the Expanded Programme of Technical Assistance, which involved agencies like UNESCO, ILO, WHO, FAO and UNICEF.

United Nations Development Programme (*UNDP*) : This programme assists developing countries in the mobilization and efficient utilization of their natural and human resources. UNDP aid received by Pakistan is mainly directed towards (i) creating or strengthening applied research institutes, (ii) supporting the establishment or expansion of training and educational centres, and (iii) technical assistance in various fields of economic development.

The 1969 UN technical assistance programme for Pakistan included 45 projects requested and approved in 1968, and 15 projects submitted up to December 1969. Annual expenditure on such programmes amounts to about $ 1 million; and projects are carried out by the United Nations and its specialized agencies in accordance with the field of activity involved. Details of UNDP aid provided during the Third Plan period are given in Table XII. Up to March 1970, the UNDP had earmarked about $ 17.25 million for Special Fund projects and $ 6 million for technical assistance projects. A breakdown of the Special Fund assistance by economic sectors is given in Table X.

Colombo Plan : The Colombo Plan, initiated in 1950, was one of the earliest examples of multilateral aid from and among specific countries.

This assistance has played a significant role in promoting the mobilization of scientific and technical manpower in the region by providing training fellowships and furnishing the services of experts and consultants for development projects in education and training as much as in the economy of the country. The total value of technical assistance extended to Pakistan under the Colombo Plan from 1950 to December 1968 amounted to $ 98.93 million, contributed by Australia, Britain, Canada, Japan, New Zealand, the United States and a number of other countries. It provided Pakistan with 226 training places in 1968/69 and 54 experts in 1968.

Regional Co-operation

RCD : Reflecting important objectives of Pakistan's foreign policy, there is

the tripartite alliance for peace, economic progress and cultural advancement, Regional Co-operation for Development, among Pakistan, Turkey and Iran, first entered into in July 1964. RCD has had many achievements to its credit in the sphere of economic co-operation (covering joint ventures, increased trade and tentative steps towards plan harmonization, though not yet joint planning) and increased cultural exchanges. It has continued to make steady headway during 1969/70.

Joint enterprises in industrial fields represent a most important feature of this co-operation. These are undertaken in the following types of set up: joint ownership in a public or private sector project; ownership by one or more countries of an industry whose produce is utilized by all; establishing production facilities in one country for which raw materials are obtained from one or more others; and long-term purchase agreements based on production facilities in any of the countries. Initially, 19 groups of industries in which there were good prospects for undertaking joint enterprises were identified. The Ministerial Council has since approved, or approved in principle, the following joint purpose enterprises (totalling 55 at the beginning of 1970):

Name of Project	*Location*
1. Bank Note Paper	Pakistan
2. Cotton Lint Pulp	Pakistan
3. Kraft Paper	Pakistan
4. Ball Bearings	Pakistan
5. Textile Machinery Manufacture	Pakistan
6. PAS Sodium	Pakistan
7. Reactive Dyes	Pakistan
8. Optical Bleaches	Pakistan
9. Ultramarine Blue	Pakistan
10. Toxaphe Plant	Pakistan
11. Wires and Cables	Pakistan
12. Dipterex Plant	Pakistan
13. Jute Manufactures	Pakistan
14. Crawler Tyre Earth Moving Equipment	Pakistan
15. Shock Absorbers	Pakistan
16. Machine Tools, Gear Boxes, Clutch System, Steering System, Differential System	Pakistan
17. Aluminium Sheets	Pakistan
18. Polyester Fibre	Pakistan
19. Polyacrylonitrile Fibre	Pakistan
20. Polybutadiene Rubber	Pakistan
21. Methanol	Pakistan
22. Urea Formaldehyde	Pakistan
23. Aluminium	Iran
24. Carbon Black	Iran
25. Dumpers	Iran

26.	Seamless Steel Pipes and Tubes	Iran
27.	Sodium Tripolyphosphate	Iran
28.	Naphthol Dyes	Iran
29.	Caprolactum	Iran
30.	Polyisoprene Rubber	Iran
31.	Tetraethyl Lead	Iran
32.	Locomotives	Turkey
33.	Kraft Paper Pulp	Turkey
34.	Streptomycin	Turkey
35.	Organic Pigment Dyes	Turkey
36.	Basic and Chrome Dyes	Turkey
37.	Borax and Boric Acid	Turkey
38.	Machinery for Tea Industry	Turkey
39.	Rubber Tyre Earth Moving Equipment	Turkey
40.	Concrete mixers and Concrete Preparation Equipment	Turkey
41.	Tungsten Carbide	Turkey
42.	Pressure Vessels	Turkey
43.	Centrifugal and Special Filters for Chemical Industry	Turkey
44.	Locomotive Diesel Engines	Turkey
45.	Izmir Oil Refinery	Turkey
46.	Polystyrene	Turkey
47.	Glycerine	Turkey
48.	Joint Purpose Enterprises between Pakistan and Turkey for manufacturing Resistors, Capacitors, Semi-conductors and TV Picture Tubes, RF Transformers, IF Transformers, Speakers, Mobile Radio Equipment, Sound Equipment, excluding Move Equipment and Test and Measuring Equipment	Turkey and Pakistan
49.	Diesel Engines required for use in Marine-craft, Tractors, Earth-moving Equipment and Light and Heavy Trucks and Buses.	Iran, Pakistan and Turkey
50.	RCD Advisory and Designs Centre	Anyone of the member countries with regional offices in the other two

These endeavours to promote joint purpose industrial enterprises are beginning to provide visible results. Of the approved projects, 13 started production in 1969, and exchanges of their products was in part commenced in 1970. Amongst these are six projects located in Pakistan, namely, gear boxes and differential systems, machine tools (turret and capstan lathes), ultramarine blue, urea formaldehyde, methanol, bank note and security paper.

Seven other joint-purpose enterprises were under various stages of implementation and scheduled to go into production by the end of 1970 or

shortly thereafter. These include ball bearings, jute manufacture and shock absorbers located in Pakistan, aluminium located in Iran, and the Izmir Oil Refinery and locomotives located in Turkey, and diesel engines located in all the three countries.

All the other joint-purpose enterprises which have been approved so far are scheduled to be in production by 1973. RCD activity in the industrial field, including petroleum and petrochemicals, will lead to harmonization of planning in these fields, and the region as a whole would benefit from the scale of the economy and the size of the combined market.

A great advantage of the joint purpose enterprises is that they have an assured market. The participating countries either agree to lift a particular quantity of the output or meet their total import requirement from the RCD projects. Thus the RCD region—with its natural resources, developing infrastructure, inexpensive labour, Government incentive, and growing demands of its market of over 185 million people—offers tremendous opportunities for investment in the private sector. Businessmen can participate in the joint ventures already approved or negotiate new ones.

Trade : Trade is the key to all economic co-operation and, as such, concerted efforts are being made for the expansion of intra-regional trade under the aegis of RCD. In pursuance of the decision of the meeting of the RCD Council, the Commerce Ministers of the RCD countries met at Tehran in September 1968, to discuss possible measures for the removal of barriers to intra-regional trade. A survey to identify trade barriers has also been undertaken in co-operation with UNCTAD. This report has been submitted. and at the RCD Summit Conference at Izmir in May 1970, the member countries' Heads of State directed the Ministers concerned to devise effective measures towards the reduction of tariff barriers and the relaxation of quantitative import restrictions in order to promote intra-regional trade. The 13th Session of the RCD Ministerial Council held at Dacca in January 1971 also stressed the development of preferential trade arrangements. Meanwhile, member Governments are taking administrative actions, such as barter arrangements and single-country licencing to increase the flow of intra-regional trade.

Insurance : An RCD Insurance Centre was set up at Karachi in 1965 to promote co-operation in the field of insurance. The Centre started publishing an *RCD Insurance Manual* in 1967, and the membership of RCD Reinsurance Pools (fire, marine, accident and aviation) has increased from 25 in that year to 42 in 1970. A new Engineering Reinsurance Pool started operations in January 1970. Several national companies have joined these pools. The Reinsurance pools handled business worth about $ 1.35 million in 1967, $ 1.52 million in 1968, and an estimated $2 million in 1970.

Banknig : Experts and trainees in the field of banking are being exchanged amongst member countries. The question of establishing a Regional Commercial and Development Bank is under active consideration of the

member Governments. An RCD Manual on Banking edited by the representatives of the Central Banks of Iran, Pakistan and Turkey has been prepared.

Communications : Surface postal rates for letter mail of all categories have been reduced to the level of internal rates within the respective countries. Air surcharge on letter mail will also be reduced to the internal level by the three countries when joint airlines start operating.

The micro-wave system connecting the three member countries is operating satisfactorily. Telegraph, telephone and surface postal rates have been reduced to the level of internal rates within the respective countries. And more recently, simple operator trunk dialing has also been introduced.

The construction of the RCD Highway, linking Ankara, Tehran and Karachi, is making good progress.

As for a rail link, the Pakistan railway system now extends up to the Iranian city of Zahidan. The railway link between Tehran and Kashan is in operation, and the section between Kashan to Yazd and to Kerman is expected to be completed shortly. The study on the section between Kerman and Zahidan has been included in the Fourth National Plan of Iran. The Tehran-Ankara rail link is expected to become operative within a year.

One of the concrete achievements of RCD is the establishment of RCD shipping services, which are operating on a number of intra-regional routes. Iran's share entitlement in the Conference is 15 per cent, Pakistan's 50 per cent and Turkey's 35 per cent. The headquarters of the Conference have been set up in Istanbul. A joint shipping company may also be set up in the near future.

The national airlines of the three member countries have appointed each other as their general sales agents. The pooling arrangements by IRAN AIR and PIA are to be finalized shortly. The national airlines of the RCD countries are considering the possibility of establishing a joint airline, in addition to the three national airlines, to operate large subsonic and supersonic aircrafts—and the 1970 summit agreed to expedite this project.

Finally, steps are also being taken to promote tourism between the member countries and to increase cultural exchanges.

Technical Co-operation : A general agreement for the administration of Technical Assistance Programmes under the aegis of RCD has been finalized. Between 1965 and 1969, 33 experts and 413 students have been exchanged and 29 RCD seminars have been held.

IPECC : The Indonesia-Pakistan Economic and Cultural Co-operation Organization was established in 1965. Its secretariat is located at Djakarta and is headed by a Secretary-General and a Deputy. It has much the same aims as RCD.

Progress has been recorded in finalizing the framework for economic co-operation, in promoting joint ventures, better trading facilities, provisions of credits to and rescheduling of repayment by one to the other

side, and in concluding a number of specific agreements. The first session of the Ministerial Council was held at Djakarta in February 1968. The session was preceded by the third session of the IPECC Economic Council. The second session of the Ministerial Council of the IPECC was held at Islamabad on February 25-26, 1969. The Council endorsed the observations and decisions of the fourth session of the Economic Council. ; and it met again in July 1970 at Djakarta.

Joint Ventures : The fields approved for joint ventures in principle are: (i) jute; (ii) fish catching, processing and export ; (iii) rubber processing; (iv) metal processing; (v) building small ships and river craft (vi) cotton textiles; (vii) timber extraction and logging ; (viii) exploration and exploitation of oil in Indonesia ; (ix) manufacture of transport aircraft.

Since the second meeting of the Council, teams of experts have visited Indonesia to study and recommend measures for co-operation in the textile industry and the manufacture of small ships and river craft. Other experts would also be visiting Indonesia shortly to study similar ventures for jute manufacture, fish catching and export, rubber processing and aircaft manufacture. A study on metal processing is under preparation in Indonesia.

Technical Co-operation : Technical Co-operation Programmes, including the exchange of students, technicians and experts are making progress; and cultural programmes include the exchange of sports teams, sports coaches and women's delegations.

Communications : The Indonesia-Pakistan Air Agreement signed in Karachi in January 1966 is working satisfactorily, and Pakistan International Airlines and Garuda Indonesian Airways are co-operating in matters of mutual interest.

Arrangements have been made to establish an aeronautical fixed telecommunication link between Karachi and Djakarta. Steps are also being taken to establish an Indonesia-Pakistan telex service and start a radio-photo service.

An earlier decision regarding the application of inland postal rates to all categories of surface letters and postal items by the two countries is being satisfactorily implemented. Matters relating to reduction in the air postage rates, parcel postage rates and telegraph rates are under active consideration by the two countries.

In accordance with the agreement between the two Governments on ocean shipping, the sea vessels of the National Shipping Corporation of Pakistan and Djakarta Lloyd call at Indonesian and Pakistani ports as a routine.

Trade : The production pattern of the two countries indicates a good potential for mutual trade, and a number of measures have been taken to expand it. These include exchange of information on import and export regulations and on commodities of interest to the other country; exchange of business

delegations; consultation between Chambers of Commerce and Industry; and strengthening banking and shipping services. The two Governments have signed agreements for the exchange of commodities worth $ 20 million and a credit of $ 10 million from Pakistan to Indonesia. Finally, as a gesture of its goodwill and friendship, Pakistan has donated three of PIA's Super Constellation aircraft to Indonesia in 1969. (Also see chapter on Foreign Relations.)

Aid to Others : Pakistan has, in its turn, been giving economic aid, mainly technical assistance, to others. Its contribution to various programmes is summarized in Table XIV, and to various countries in Tables XIV to XVIII.

(*Note* : See also note at end of the chapter on International Relations and President Yahya Khan's statement concerning foreign aid in Supplement I. In view of the Aid-to-Pakistan Consortium's negative attitude towards Pakistan, the already growing emphasis on self-reliance and trade rather than aid has gained new strength. The country is ready to face this new challenge to its economic development, and, if necessary, pull itself up by its own bootstraps.)

TABLE I

International Economic Assistance to Pakistan

1950-1969

($ million)

Period	Grant	Loan	Total
Pre-First Plan (1950-55)	251	121	372
First Plan (July 1955-June 1960)	573	417	990
Second Plan (July 1960-June 1965)	342	2,023	2.365
Third Plan (July 1965-Dec. 1969)	150	2,156	2,306
TOTAL	1,316	4,717	6,033

Source : *Pakistan Economic Survey* (*1969-70*), which has also revised the earlier *Survey* figures for the Second Plan.

TABLE II

International Economic Assistance received up to December 1969

($ million)

Country/Agency	Grants	Loans	Total
Australia	40.662	—	40.662
Belgium	—	8.500	8.500
Canada	222.101	125.590	347.691
China	—	107.555	107.555
Czechoslovakia	—	54.299	54.299
Denmark	—	9.409	9.409
France	—	113.491	113.491
Germany	0.313	415.312	415.625
Italy	—	92.691	92.691
Japan	2.550	299.025	301.575
Netherlands		35.252	35.252
New Zealand	6.810	—	6.810

TABLE II—(*Contd.*)

Country/Agency	Grant	Loans	Totals
Norway	5.026	—	5.026
Poland	—	11.326	11.326
Switzerland	—	18.253	18.253
Sweden	12.996	11.936	24.932
Turkey	—	3.646	3.646
U.K.	14.435	354.954	369.389
U.S.A.	925.813	1,744.314	2,670.127*
USSR	—	119.545	119.545
Yugoslavia	—	111.398	111.398
Suppliers Credit	—	42.285	42.285
IBRD	—	614.269	614.269
IDA	—	379.194	379.194
ADB	—	10.000	10.000
IFC	—	22.851	22.851
CDFB	—	3.770	3.770
Shell Petroleum Co. London ..	—	6.626	6.626
ERC	—	1.512	1.512
UN Specialized Agencies ..	16.417	—	16.417
UN Special Fund	14.352	—	14.352
Ford Foundation	49.180	—	49.180
Others	5.381	—	5.381
TOTAL	1,316.036	4,717.003	6,033.039

*Not including PL-480 and certain other forms of assistance, such as that received from the Ford Foundation. Together with these, the total amounts to about $ 4,050 million.

Source : *Pakistan Economic Survey*, 1969-70.

TABLE III

Distribution of External Loans between Public and Private Sectors

(*As at December 31, 1969*)

($ million)

Economic Sector	Public	Private	Total
I—Project Loans			
Agriculture	76.864	74.460	151.324
Water and Power	840.881	56.471	897.352
Industries	332.460	764.188	1,096.648
Fuels and Minerals	68.703	72.456	141.159
Transport and Communications	734.131	199.480	933.611
Social Services	95.071	3.630	98.701
Total	2,148.110	1,170.685	3,318.795
II—Non-Project Loans	1,398.208	—	1,398.208
TOTAL I + II	3,546.318	1,170.685	4,717.003

Source : Economic Affairs Division.

TABLE IV

Pledges, Commitments and Disbursements during the Third Plan Period

($ million)

	Pledges			Commitments			Disbursements		
	Con-sortium	Non-Con-sortium	Total	Con-sortium	Non-Con-sortium	Total	Con-sortium	Non-Con-sortium	Total
1965/66	250	54	304	351	78	429	306	70	376
1966/67	337	206	543	402	105	507	358	99	457
1967/68	327	37	364	341	70	411	407	60	467
1968/69	404	253	657	424	152	576	399	94	493
1969/70	382	89	471	381	80	461	423	90	513
TOTAL	1,700	639	2,339	1,899	485	2,384	1,893	413	2,306

* Up to December 31, 1969.

Source : *Preliminary Evaluation of the Third Five-Year Plan (1965-70)*, which is also the source for the following Tables V to VI. (According to the *Pakistan Economic Survey, 1969-70*, estimates for the period 1965-70, total pledges amounted to $ 2,565 million, commitments to $ 2,702 million and disbursements to $ 2,397 million, including Rs. 1,507 million as project and Rs. 890 million as non-project assistance.)

TABLE V

A. Aid Pledged by Consortium during the Third Plan Period

($ million)

	1965/66	1966/67	1967/68	1968/69	1969/70	Total
1. Belgium	—	0.5	1.0	11.0	1.5	14.0
2. Canada	25.4	25.4	25.4	27.2	27.3	130.7
3. France	10.0	10.0	10.0	15.0	16.2	61.2
4. Germany	38.1	37.5	37.5	37.5	38.2	188.8
5. Italy	20.0	32.0	15.0	—	30.0	97.0
6. Japan	30.0	30.0	30.0	30.0	30.0	150.0
7. Netherlands	5.0	4.4	4.4	3.3	4.4	21.5
8. U.K.	22.4	22.4	19.2	19.2	24.4	107.6
9. U.S.A.[1]	50.0	140.0	140.0	83.0	87.5	500.5
10. US Eximbank	—	—	—	—	2.00	20.0
11. IBRD/IDA[2]	49.1	34.8	45.0	177.5	96.4	402.8
12. Sweden	—	—	—	—	6.0	6.0
TOTAL	250.0	337.0	327.5	403.7	381.9	1,700.2

[1] US pledges since 1965/66 have been confined to non-project aid. As commitments under project aid have been financed from earlier years' uncommitted pledges and from surrenders and savings in earlier loans, these have not been shown as fresh pledges.

[2] As IBRD/IDA do not allow carry-over of one year's uncommitted pledges to subsequent years, the figures against IBRD and IDA represent actual commitments during these years. These, however, exclude an amount of $ 25 million committed for Indus/Tarbela.

TABLE V

B. Aid Pledged by Consortium Sources Outside Consortium and Non-Consortium Countries during 1965-70

($ million)

	1965/66	1966/67	1967/68	1968/69	1969/70	Total
A. Consortium Sources Outside Consortium						
1. Canada (wheat)	3.7	6.8	7.9	4.6	3.8	26.8
2. France	—	10.0	—	—	—	10.0
3. Sweden	5.2	1.8	5.0	18.0	—	30.0
4. US-Eximbank	—	—	—	—	1.5	1.5
5. Suppliers Credits :						
(i) Japan	—	—	8.1	—	7.5	15.6
(ii) U.K.	—	9.6	9.9	19.9	12.3	51.7
(iii) U.S.A.	—	18.3	0.8	—	—	19.1
6. Asian Development Bank	—	—	—	10.0	—	10.0
7. CDFC	—	3.2	0.9	—	—	4.1
8. IFC	—	3.2	—	3.9	—	7.1
9. NGB Loan	—	—	—	—	4.0	4.0
TOTAL (A)	8.9	52.9	32.6	56.4	29.1	179.9

TABLE V—(*Contd.*)

	1965/66	1966/67	1967/68	1968/69	1969/70	Total
B. Non-Consortium Sources						
1. Australia	2.2	—	1.5	5.4	—	9.1
2. Austria (Suppliers Credits)	—	—	—	—	5.5	5.5
3. Denmark	2.0	—	—	—	—	2.0
4. Kuwait	—	—	—	—	4.9	4.9
5. New Zealand	—	—	—	0.2	—	0.2
6. Saudi Arabia	—	—	—	—	5.7	5.7
7. Switzerland	—	4.6	—	4.0	21.4	30.0
8. Turkey	—	—	—	9.1	—	9.1
9. Bulgaria	—	—	—	—	8.0	8.0
10. China	—	6.9	—	40.0	—	46.9
11. Czechoslovakia	—	28.0	2.5	—	—	30.5
12. Rumania	—	—	—	—	9.2	9.2
13. USSR	—	84.0	—	88.3	—	172.3
14. Yugoslavia	40.8	30.0	—	50.0	—	120.8
15. Norway	—	—	—	—	5.0	5.0
TOTAL (B)	45.0	153.5	4.0	197.0	59.7	459.2
GRAND Total (A+B)	53.9	206.4	36.6	253.4	88.8	639.1

Note : Pledges in the case of Czechoslovakia, Switzerland, Turkey, USSR and Yugoslavia are based on the frame agreements or protocols entered into with these countries. Pledges in the case of other countries and agencies are related to actual commitments. The pledges also exclude $ 40 million committed by Italy for Tarbela.

TABLE VI

Zonal Allocations of Project Contracted during the Third Plan

($ million)

Year	Centre	East Pakistan	West Pakistan	Common	Un-alloca-ted	Total
A. Grants						
1965/66	0.498	2.086	1.318	—	—	3.902
1966/67	0.073	0.055	0.231	—	—	0.359
1967/68	0.430	—	0.231	—	—	0.467
1968/69	—	2.080	0.352	0.006	0.014	2.452
1969/70*	—	0.925	0.925	—	0.555	2.405
Sub-Total (*A*)	1.001	5.146	2.863	0.006	0.569	9.585
B. Loans						
1965/66	—	63.116	123.564	—	0.073	186.753
1966/67	11.424	55.055	72.986	1.875	0.283	141.623
1967/68	4.054	53.838	61.170	6.769	0 010	125.841
1968/69	20.773	70.385	225.987a	—	78.221	395.366
1969/70*	36.163	31.101	69.533b	1.530	30.382	168.709
Sub-Total (*B*)	72.414	273.495	553.240c	10.174	108.969	1,018.292
C. Export Credits						
1965/66	—	62.164	46.865	10.903	3.106	123.038
1966/67	—	32.467	61.240	44.516	—	138.223
1967/68	10.495	44.614	26.154	5.252	0.297	86.812
1968/69	0.810	28.401	36.849	31.048	0.749	97.857
1969/70*	1.867	42.654	21.670	—	8.346	74.537
Sub-Total (*C*)	13.172	210.300	192.778	91.719	12.498	520.467
D. Total						
1965/66	0.498	127.366	171.747	10.903	3.179	313.693
1966/67	11.497	87.577	134.457	46.391	0.283	280.205
1967/68	14.979	98.452	87.361	12.021	0.307	213.120
1968/69	21.583	100.866	263.188a	31.054	78.984	495.675
1969/70	38.030	74.680	92.128b	1.530	39.283	245.651
TOTAL	86.587	488.941	748.881c	101.899	122.036	1,548.34

Notes : a Includes loans of $ 90.6 million for the Tarbela Dam.

b Includes loans of $ 46.36 million for the Tarbela Dam.

c Includes loans of $ 136.96 million for the Tarbela Dam.

*Up to May 13, 1970.

Source : Planning Commission.

TABLE VII

Assistance under PL-480 During Third Plan

(*Up to May 15, 1970*)

(Value in million $)

Commodity	Unit	1965/66		1966/67		1967/68		1968/69		1969/70	
		Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
from Second Plan		—	(94.0)								
Wheat	Tons	300,000	17.609	818,000	54.8	1,900,000	129.100	2,150,000	142.20	1,000,000	52.1
Cotton	Bales	3,000	0.600	—	—	20,000	4.100	20,000	4.10	10,000	2.2
Edible Oil	Tons	20,000	6.385	80,000	21.8	120,000	29.200	170,000	41.80	131,000	31.1
Tobacco	Lbs.	500,000	0.650	180,000	2.8	180,000	2.700	360,000	5.50	100,000	1.5
Tallow	Tons	—	—	30,000	5.8	45,000	8.100	45,000	8.10	—	—
Non-fat Dry Milk	Tons	—	—	—	—	4,000	1.900	4,000	1.90	—	—
Coarse Grain	Tons	—	—	450,000	26.4	—	—	—	—	—	—
TOTAL		—	25.244	—	111.6	—	175.100	—	203.60	—	86.9

Notes : Does not include value of ocean transport. Total PL-480 assistance amounts to $ 1,231.8 million up to the end of the Second Plan period, and including the above assistance of $602.4 million. to $ 1,834.2 million. Eximbank loans for PL-480 during this whole period amount to $ 307.548 million, and this constitutes the only PL-480 item included under US assistance in Table II.
Source : *Pakistan Economic Survey, 1969/70* (figures for 1968/69 are taken from the *Survey, 1968/69*).

TABLE VIII

Outstanding External Indebtedness as on December 31, 1969

($ million)

	Loans repayable in foreign exchange*	Loans repayable in rupees	Total
Contracted	4,412.82	304.18	4,717.00
Disbursed	3,345.43	304.18	3,649.61
Repaid	625.75	68.96	694.72
Disbursed and outstanding	2,722.02	235.22	2,597.24
Undisbursed	1,060.50	—	1,060.50
Interest paid	306.77	80.82	387.59

* The amounts shown under loans repaid and disbursed and outstanding do not add up to loans disbursed due to the devaluation of Sterling and the French Franc and the revaluation of the Deutsche Mark. For the same reason 'disbursed' and 'undisbursed' do not add up to the amount contracted.

Source : Ministry of Finance.

TABLE IX

Debt Service Charges for External Debt Contracted up to December 31, 1970. as Ratio to Pakistan's Earnings of Foreign Exchange.

($ million)

Years	Foreign Exchange earnings	External Debt Service	Debt Service Ratio to exchange earnings in per cent
1960/61	475.587	17.157	3.6
1961/62	497.322	30.618	6.2
1962/63	576.807	47.586	8.2
1963/64	576.198	61.509	10.7
1964/65	629.139	62.223	9.9
1965/66	686.783	73.689	10.7
1966/67	729.981	95.718	13.1
1967/68	800.562	108.420	13.5
1968/69	882.588	154.258	17.5
1969/70 (Estimate)	860.000	165.000	19.2

Source : Ministry of Finance.

TABLE X

Assistance Provided by U.N. Development Programme (Special Fund) to Pakistan up to March 1970

($)

Field of Assistance	No. of projects	Total UNDP (SF) allocations
Agriculture	4	4,125,200
Industry, Natural Resources and Power	5	5,939,700
Public Utilities (Telecommunications)	1	894,600
Housing, Building and Physical Planning	2	2,814,200
Planning, Education and Training	4	3,482,200
TOTAL	16	17,255,900

Source : *Pakistan Economic Survey, 1969-70.* (All 1968/69 *Survey* figures have been revised).

TABLE XI

Technical Assistance Received by Pakistan under the Colombo Plan between 1965 and 1968

($)

Type of Assistance	1965/66 (June-July)	1966/67 (June-July)	1967 (Calendar years)	1968 (Calendar years)
Trainees	2,434,384	2,817,027	2,818,879	2,771,500
Experts	4,903,662	5,406,864	4,501,250	3,209,400
Equipment	2,493,808	1,361,310	1,022,744	1,085,400
Others	—	—	—	384,800
TOTAL	9,831,854	9,585,201	8,342,873	7,451,100

Sources: *Pakistan Economic Survey, 1969-70.*

TABLE XII

United Nations Development Programme in the Third Plan Period

Name and Location of Project	Approved by Governing Council	Field work Commenced	Scheduled year of Completion/ Project Duration	Special Fund Allocation U.S.$	Expert Man/ Months	Fellowship Man/ Months	Equipment U.S.$	Experts on Station, including candidates approved
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Location and Planning of Cities in East Pakistan (Dacca)	June 1965	20-2-66	1971	1,106,100	132	210	98,500	2
Pre-Investment Studies for the Promotion of the Fertilizer and Petrochemical Industries (Rawalpindi).	June 1965	4-3-66	1970	1,609,300 (+subcontract)	UNIDO 211 FAO 179	60	146,000	7
Second Hydrological Survey in East Pakistan (Dacca)	January 1966	1-5-66	1970	997,800	381	128	160,200	2
Development of the East Pakistan Forest Research Institute (Chittagong)	January 1966	20-3-68	1974	943,000	324	216	55,000	2
Automotive Training Centre (Chittagong)	June 1967	21-7-69	1973	348,300	114	24	65,000	1
Deck Personnel Training Centre (Narayanganj)	June 1967	—	4½ years	581,800	180	24	144,500	—
Telecommunications Staff College (Haripur)	January 1968	—	5 years	894,600	192	54	327,100	—
Master Plan for the Metropolitan area of Karachi	June 1968	1-7-68	4 years	1,708,100 (+subcontract)	126	96	42,000	1

TABLE XII (*Contd.*)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Assistance to the Planning Commission (Islamabad)	June 1968	1968	1970	1,214,200	(subcontract)	—	—	14
Poultry Production Institute, Malir (Karachi)	January 1969	—	5 years	1,269,200	330	168	283,000	1
Strengthening of West Pakistan Veterinary Research Institute (Lahore)	January 1969	—	3 years	949,500	288	72	159,000	1
Assistance to the University of Islamabad (Islamabad)	June 1969	—	1 year	233,000	48	48	55,000	1
Centre for the Organization and Development of Jute Industry (Dacca)	January 1969	—	3 years	600,100	168	36	120,000	—
Assistance to East Pakistan WAPDA (Dacca)	January 1969	19-2-69	1971	1,974,300	(subcontract)	—	90,000	11

Source : United Nations Development Programme for Pakistan.

TABLE XIII

New Training Places Provided to Pakistan under Colombo Plan

Field of Assistance	1965/66	1966/67	1967/68	1968/69
General Education	74	50	29	22
Technical Education	5	14	68	45
Medical and Health	42	54	26	10
Food, Agriculture and Forestry	71	83	32	27
Power and Fuel	11	13	9	6
Engineering	48	64	18	22
Industry and Trade	17	15	14	10
Transport and Communications	40	28	15	14
Administration	53	106	46	41
Social Services	7	4	2	2
Statistics	17	23	7	3
Fisheries	3	8	2	2
Co-operatives	2	6	6	—
Banking, Finance, Accountancy, Taxation and Insurance	11	25	3	9
Journalism, Press Photography and Printing	—	—	3	1
Miscellaneous	—	—	13	12
TOTAL	401	493	293	226

Source : *Pakistan Economic Survey, 1969-70.*

TABLE XIV

Pakistan Contributions to Technical Assistance Programmes

(Rs.)

	1967/68 Budget Estimate	1968/69 Budget Estimate
Expanded Programme of the United Nations Technical Assistance for Economic Development	1,190,000	1,582,700
UN Special Project Fund for Under-developed Countries	2,380,000	2,380,000
Technical Assistance under IPECC Agreement	85,000	50.000
Asian Institute of Economic Development	70,000	69,800
Technical Assistance under CENTO Pact	150,000	150,000
Technical Assistance to African Countries	300,000	300,000
Technical Co-operation under Colombo Plan	500,000	500,000
Technical Co-operation under RCD	575,000	600,000
Contribution to UN Training Research Institute	19,000	19,000
Technical Assistance to Middle-East Countries and Persian Gulf Area	500,000	500,000
Commonwealth Secretariat	56,000	—
Contribution to Commonwealth Economic Committee	—	72,000
TOTAL	5,825,800*	6,223,500

*Revised to Rs. 5,794,400.

Source: The Budget of the Central Government for 1968/69.

TABLE XV

Technical Assistance to Middle-East Countries

(No. of persons)

Country	1964/65	1965/66	1966/67	1967/68
Training Facilities				
Kuwait	11	—	—	—
Jordan	—	—	2	1
UAR	—	3	—	—
Saudi Arabia	—	—	16	—
Iraq	—	—	—	8
Total	11	3	18	9
Experts :				
Jordan	—	1	—	1

Source: Planning Commission.

TABLE XVI

Technical Assistance to South -East Asian Countries under the Colombo Plan

(No. of trainees)

Country	1950—64	1964/65	1965/66	1966/67	1967/68
Training Facilities :					
Burma	33	—	—	—	1
Cambodia	4	—	—	2	—
Ceylon	12	—	—	3	3
Indonesia	38	—	—	—	—
Laos	1	—	—	—	—
Malaysia	39	3	1	3	3
Maldive	—	—	2	2	—
Philippines	12	—	—	—	1
Thailand	7	—	1	2	2
Viet-Nam	7	1	—	—	—
Total	153	4	4	12	10

Source: Planning Commission.

TABLE XVII

Technical Assistance to African Countries

(No. of persons)

Country	1961/62	1962-63	1963/64	1964/65	1965/66	1966/67	1967/68
Training Facilities							
Nigeria	16	1	3	4	7	1	4
Ghana	—	—	3	—	—	—	—
Sudan	—	1	—	—	—	—	5
Somalia	—	—	2	—	—	1	—
Zanzibar	—	—	—	—	8	—	—
Kenya	—	—	—	—	—	2	—
Tunisia	—	—	—	—	—	1	—
Tanzania	—	—	—	—	—	—	5
Ethiopia	—	—	—	—	—	—	2
Total	16	2	8	4	15	5	16
Experts							
Ghana	1	—	1	—	—	—	—
Somalia	—	1	—	—	—	—	1
East Africa	—	—	—	1	—	—	—
Total	1	1	1	1	—	—	1

Source : Planning Commission.

TABLE XVIII

Technical Assistance for RCD Countries

(No. of persons)

	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969
Training Facilities					
For Iran in Pakistan	27	36	88	175	71
For Turkey in Pakistan	11	19	31	38	40
Experts					
For Iran from Pakistan	4	6	13	13	8
For Turkey from Pakistan	1	3	1	3	6

Source : Planning Commission and RCD



In the process of educational expansion, girls constitute an increasing percentage of enrolments at all levels.

Education and Training

FACING the need to develop all levels and types of education and training to increase and improve its skilled manpower and to create a sound base of human values as well as universal literacy—facing all this, Pakistan must also choose ordered sets of priorities for an adequate concentration of resources on the progressive achievement of this massive over-all objective. According to the Fourth Plan, its "major strategy is to check the unrestricted growth of traditional education, to make the system of education more functional with regard to the future needs of the developing economy and to create a system of education and training that reflects an economically sensible distribution of resources among its component parts." And the crux of the total question of priorities, above considerations of buildings, equipment and even textbooks, is a satisfactory assessment and timely provision of an adequately trained teaching force for any contemplated expansion of enrolments at various levels for various types of education—general, scientific, technical, vocational, professional and adult or fundamental education. Expansion which proceeds beyond the outer limits of the capacity of a given teaching force must be a spurious development with disastrous consequences of wastage and falling standards. Given a correct assessment which takes account of the need for annual replacements in the teaching force, at around 4 per cent of its total strength, as well as for additions to it corresponding with increases in enrolments—matched by actual outputs of teachers conforming to the assessment—there still remains the problem of ensuring adequate recurrent finance to provide sufficiently attractive salaries for these teachers. Then, too, good teachers themselves are the products of good educational

and training centres staffed with good teachers. This emphasizes the fact that in the long run the general quality of education can, through a selective and gradual process, be improved only from the narrow apex of the educational pyramid downwards to its broad base. In other words, without basic improvements in education at the higher levels, an educational system can never expect to get anywhere near a sufficient number of able and qualified teachers for its primary level of education.

Concerned about such basic questions as well as the social and political unrest of November 1968 to March 1969, the new Government instituted a series of studies on educational policy by a number of expert groups. Following these studies, the Government announced its proposals for a new education policy in July, 1969, which was published and circulated for public debate and discussion. Hundreds of comments and observations on the proposals, covering over 15,000 pages, were received by the Education Division and were sifted and studied. The original proposals were reviewed in the light of the results of this study, and were then modified to reflect broad areas of agreement. These draft proposals were further examined by a Committee of the Cabinet, which reviewed the recommendations of this Committee on March 13, 1970. On March 26, the Central Education Minister announced the New Policy for Education approved by the Cabinet. While stressing the Islamic and the functional and developmental role and orientation of education, the new policy also lays special emphasis on "the paramount importance of quality in education"—in this connection giving the highest priority to improvements in the pay-scales and service conditions of teachers, together with an appropriate recognition of the need and importance of improving student amenities. These emphases are basically in line with the original proposals. The major points of difference arise in relation to the rate at which (a) illiteracy is to be eliminated and (b) elementary education for grades I to VIII expanded. In addition, the language policy is left to be decided after further study, and a number of other questions are to be dealt with at the Provincial level.

New Education Policy : In the original 'Proposals for a New Educational Policy', the importance of education is restressed : "It is now widely accepted that the greater factor in a nation's economic progress is the quality of its manpower resources, which can be improved through education. For a country like Pakistan, with few discovered minerals and other resources, education assumes an even larger importance. It is, therefore, necessary that education should not merely be treated as social service, but should be regarded as a necessary 'Investment in Man', without which real economic progress is difficult.

". . . It is considered that for national development purposes, the first priority of education should be to create a literate society . . . . The importance of literacy in national development is twofold. Firstly, it helps to bring about changes in social attitudes, such as contempt for manual work, submissiveness to authority etc., which inhibit economic progress. Secondly, it raises labour productivity by facilitating the acquisition of analytical and

technical skills. It is clear that no real economic progress is possible in an illiterate society. The proposed educational plan therefore places the maximum emphasis on elementary education so that literacy may be eliminated at the source. Since, however, it will take a number of years before this plan can have its impact, it is recommended that a crash programme should be undertaken to spread literacy throughout the country.

". . . A selective approach is recommended. Immediate emphasis should be on imparting functional literacy to (a) those employed in the urban manufacturing sector, (b) those living in the vicinity of large upcoming projects and (c) the drop-outs of elementary schools. The target should be to impart literacy to 68 million adults by 1980. . . If the programme is to succeed it will be necessary to introduce national service for the country's educated youth on the Iranian model (of a National Literacy Corps). . "

The proposals go on to stress the need to improve falling academic standards; to make education more relevant to social and economic needs (including greater emphasis on vocational/technical education and elimination of the waste of educated unemployment, currently estimated at 200,000); to gradually introduce national languages as mediums of instruction at higher as well as lower levels; and to give the attention due to the teacher as the pivot of any educational system. They then conclude that it is clear "that the existing educational system is in need of drastic change, and if education is to be used as a force for national development and consolidation, not only is it necessary to restructure the educational system itself, but to attach a higher priority to education in national planning than has been done in the past . . ."

"The aims of the new Educational Policy should be to (a) impart a common set of cultural values based on the precepts of Islam, (b) create a literate society, (c) attach a high priority to the development of analytical and technical skills, (d) attract some of the best talents of the country into the teaching profession, and (e) use education as a force of national unification."

The basic concepts inspiring the goals and guidelines of educational development, as envisaged in the subsequent New Education Policy, are said to rest on the following five keystones :

(i) The role of education in the preservation and inculcation of Islamic values as an instrument of national unity and progress.

(ii) The reorientation of educational programmes in the light of economic needs of the society, particularly by shifting the emphasis to scientific, technical and vocational education.

(iii) The role of education as an instrument of social change and development, and as a factor in the creation of a democratic social order, by ensuring equal access to opportunities of education.

(iv) The paramount importance of quality in education and the crucial role of teachers in the improvement of educational quality.

(v) The decentralization of educational administration to ensure the academic freedom and administrative and financial autonomy required for the health and efficient growth of educational institutions,

particularly at the higher stage.

The Policy aims at universal enrolment up to grade V by 1980; compulsory attendance of children in grades I-V; extending the duration of the basic level of education from five to eight years (i.e. up to grade VIII) ; functional education for 5 million illiterate adults by 1975 (in comparison with 68 million in the 10 years up to 1980 recommended in the original proposals) ; establishing a Central University in East Pakistan on the pattern of the Islamabad University; an early scientific orientation for education, with a science high school in each sub-division and a science college in each district ; a massive shift to technical and vocational education, with an emphasis on agriculture; a crash programme for training teachers; decentralization of educational administration to ensure academic freedom and autonomy; stress on quality in education; creation of a fund to promote research; institution of national fellowships and national professorships; setting up a National Council of Education to ensure national participation in the formulation and evaluation of educational policies and programmes.

A special section in the New Policy is devoted to such student amenities as fee concessions, more scholarships, supply of low-cost textbooks, book banks, better residential accommodation, improvement of food and transport facilities. The expenditure on scholarships is to be increased from Rs. 160 million under the Third Plan to Rs. 266 million during the next five years under the Fourth Plan, in order to assist a much larger number of students to continue their education than has been the case in the past.

Highest Priority—Qualified Teachers : "The supreme importance of quality in education", the Education Minister said in his press statement on the New Policy, "can hardly be overstressed. Quality is most certainly the central factor in any concept of education where education is regarded as a process of qualitative change aiming at the development of the innate abilities of an individual. Quality in education is, however, bound up with various factors, among which the quality of teachers is the most crucial one. In order to ensure the maximum return to investment in education, it is of the highest importance that the pay and status of teachers are improved sufficiently, so as to enable the teaching profession to compete with other professions in attracting a fair share of the high-level educated manpower."

In restressing the importance of quality and the crucial role of properly qualified teachers, the statement goes on to point out that it is in the interest of the nation to end the present anomalous situation, in which the education sector is called upon to produce creative, innovative and inventive high-level manpower when the educational institutions themselves lack the manpower they need to fulfil this vital task. An adequate supply of qualified teachers should therefore receive the highest priority in the future programme of educational development.

To meet the extra cost of increased pay-scales the New Policy earmarked a special allocation of Rs. 1,000 million exclusively for this purpose. Since the existing salary base of teachers in East Pakistan was lower, Rs. 680 million of this additional allocation was earmarked for East

Pakistan, with the balance of Rs. 320 million for West Pakistan. New pre-scales, coming into effect from June 1, 1970, were to ensure that the salary of an elementary school teacher possessing the minimum requisite qualification would not be less than Rs. 120 per month—Rs. 150 being the minimum for a matriculate with a teacher training certificate (CT).

Languages : The language policy has profound implications for the educational, social, cultural and political life of a nation. It has to serve, on the one hand, as an effective instrument of educational development and, on the other, satisfy the larger aspirations and emotional needs of the nation.

Basic criteria in selecting the right medium of instruction are its ability: (a) to help the student acquire knowledge as effortlessly as possible and communicate with clarity and objectivity, and, above all, (b) to stimulate critical and creative thinking.

In recent years, the national languages, and in some cases regional languages, have progressively replaced English almost entirely up to the secondary level of education. This continued use of English as a medium of instruction, which is distinct from the study of English as a language, cannot of course be justified, as it tends to defeat the basic objectives mentioned above. Even at the highest stage, it encourages cramming without developing creative and critical powers of mind in the vast majority of students.

The question of changing the medium of instruction at the highger stage of education is, however, closely bound up with that of the replacement of English as an official language. Both of these interlinked issues therefore need to be examined together, and their full implifications have to be worked out so that the change-over is easy and smooth.

In view of this, the Cabinet decided that the Language Commission originally envisaged for 1972 in the Povincial Constitution Order, "to examine and report on the question of the replacement of the English language for official purposes" should be set up forthwith, and also examine and report on the question of replacing English as a medium of instruction.

In the mean time, it has been recommended that "preparatory measures, including the production of literature and textbooks, should be stepped up."

Religious Education : The New Policy stresses that religious education for Muslims should have an important and dynamic position in general education, with of course suitable separate provisions for the religious instruction of non-Muslim children in accordance with the faith of their parents. The religious curriculum for Muslims is to be redesigned to reflect the teachings of Islam as a dynamic force of unity and progress, and a guiding spirit for united endeavours to build up a democratic, tolerant and just society. Religious instruction is already a compulsory subject up to grade X in both wings of the country; but a reoriented Islamic framework for education is to inspire all levels of education. Stressing creative change as much as traditional values, the properly interpreted ideals of Islam are to serve as a motive force for the fullest possible realization of human potentialities, through the inculca-

tion of a spirit of enquiry and research combined with social responsibility and commitment as cornerstones of the Islamic way of life. In pursuit of this objective, a high-level committee has been constituted to draw up a curriculum for religious education, while, at the higher level, University Departments of Islamic Studies are to be strengthened in order to educate men who are not only scholars of religion in the narrow sense, but also fully responsive to the challenges of the contemporary world.

Higher Education : The Policy directs Provincial Governments to enact the necessary legislation for : (a) restoration of university senates; (b) introduction of the elective principle in various bodies of the university, with fair representation to all sections of the academic community; (c) repeal of the provisions for withdrawal of degrees; (d) development of universities as centres of learning and nurseries of values and ideals in an atmosphere of academic freedom.

Provincial Governments are also to consider the establishment of a University Grants Commission, for which a model has been indicated.

With a view to developing post-graduate teaching and research, universities are to develop centres of excellence in selected disciplines and in co-ordination with each other, so as to avoid an unnecessary duplication of facilities.

Targets of Additional Enrolments : Policy targets for additional enrolments during the period of the Fourth Plan are : Primary (I-V) 5.1 million; Middle (VI-VIII) 1.0 million; Secondary (IX-X) 435,000; Intermediate (XI-XII) 110,000; general degree college 46,000; universities 8,000; engineering colleges 4,000; technical institutions 20,000; adult education 5 million; output of teacher training (in five years) 152,300, including 128,000 teachers for primary schools and 24,300 for secondary schools.[1]

Other Measures: Steps to improve the service conditions of teachers include, apart from those mentioned already, their representation on governing bodies of educational institutions: security of service in private institutions; separate Education Service Boards for each Province, which would also serve as

[1]These figures of the Fourth Plan (for details see following section on Primary and Secondary Education and on Teacher Training) vary somewhat from the New Policy estimates. Particularly noticeable here is the contrast between the Policy estimate of a total output of 128,000 teachers and the new Plan figure of 152,300, which is somewhat more realistic, and is given against the recognition that the actual requirement for new primary school teachers alone will be about 155,000. Other corresponding figures of the Policy enrolment estimates with differences are: Secondary 535,000; general degree colleges 38,000; universities 7,500; engineering colleges 5,000; technical institutions 30,500. It may further be noted that the *Education Index* estimates given in Tables VIII A and B for 1969-70 also vary somewhat from those of the Fourth Plan in Tables V and VII.

Boards of Appeal against employers' decisions concerning teachers.

The promotion of scientific education and encouragement of the spirit of enquiry are to be supported by the establishment of centres of excellence in secondary science education at selected places, which would be open to all on the basis of ability and aptitude. At the same time, steps are to be taken to produce more and more of the requisite scientific equipment for education and research within the country, and to develop centres for advanced study and research.

Technical and vocational streams of education are to be developed from the secondary level upwards, and these will be expanded in accordance with the economic requirements of the country.

Private schools are to be so organized and supervised that they work as part of the total national system of education.

The *madrasah* courses are to be reorganized and standardized without impairing their distinctive character of being institutions of Islamic studies.

Financing the Policy : It was estimated that implementation of the Policy would cost Rs. 8,920 million—subsequently raised to Rs. 9,185 million in the Fourth Plan (see Table IV)—in the public sector over the five-year period of the Fourth Plan, compared with the actual outlay of Rs. 3,808 million under the Third Five-Year Plan. More than a twofold increase in recurring expenditure on education, from Rs. 2,480 million in the Third Plan period to Rs. 5,520 million in the Fourth Plan period, is envisaged, including a provision for increased pay-scales.

The following review of the current administrative system of education and of recent developments and programmes in education, must now be seen in the light of the New Policy, and one may expect the introduction of extensive changes in the near future with the implementation of the Fourth Five-Year Plan.

Administration : Education in Pakistan is administered by Provincial authorities, with the exception of the Centrally administered areas of the two capitals, which come under the jurisdiction of the Central Ministry of Education. The Education Department in each of the Provincial Secretariats, working through Directorates of General and Technical Education and Education Boards, is directly responsible for the maintenance and provision of facilities for teachers and students.

There are two such Directorates in East Pakistan, one of which is technical; and eight in West Pakistan, two of which are technical, with the reorganization of the new Provincial Departments of Education still in progress. The Directorates of Education supervise schools through a team of divisional and district inspectors and inspectresses.

There are four Boards of Intermediate and Secondary Education in East Pakistan and six in West Pakistan, and one Board of Technical Education in each wing of the country, while East Pakistan also has a Madrasah Education Board. The task of the Boards is to choose the curricula, conduct public examinations, define the qualifications of prospective teachers, and

select equipment for educational institutions within its jurisdiction.

The Education Directorate conduct public examinations of primary (grades I-V) and Middle (grades VI-VIII) stages, and the Boards of Intermediate and Secondary Education of the Secondary (grades IX-X) and Higher Secondary (grades XI-XII) stages, respectively. The Directorates and Boards also perform the function of synchronizing the syllabi prepared by the Curriculum Committee under the auspices of the Ministry of Education to meet special local needs. Framing syllabi and conducting examinations of the degree and post-graduate stages are functions of the individual universities.

The Ministry of Education is essentially a co-ordinator, and responsible for educational policy and foreign relations in education. Recently it has also constituted a National Council of Education to maintain a continuous appraisal and evaluation of educational programmes, to advise the Government on various measures required for the implementation of the Fourth Plan, and to initiate and support research in education and related fields.

At the pre-university level, the co-ordination of syllabi and textbooks is the responsibility of the National Bureau of Syllabi and Curricula and the National Textbook Board, two high-powered national organizations set up in the Ministry of Education in 1967 to help evolve more or less integrated syllabi and curricula and to achieve a common academic standard. It is expected that through these, citizens will be enabled to share a common national outlook and aspire after goals conforming to the basic ideals of Pakistan. Measures and endeavours in this direction are, as indicated before, to be further strengthened through a true and effective Islamic orientation for education, in the form of both a general spirit and atmosphere as well as of religious instruction.

In the field of Higher Education, the Ministry is assisted by two advisory bodies: the Inter-University Board of Pakistan and the Council of Higher Education. The Inter-University Board consists of the Vice-Chancellors and two other members from each university. The Board, among other co-ordinative and corporate functions, helps universities to determine equivalences and standards of examinations conducted by foreign universities; evolves guidelines for improving academic standards and for securing a fair degree of uniformity in the examinations of Pakistani universities, besides helping to determine and develop their fields of specialization. The Central Council for Higher Education has been set up to advise the Government on educational matters of national dimensions, such as :

(i) reflection of the ideology and objectives of Pakistan in appropriate schemes of studies;

(ii) orientation of higher education to the needs of the country's development ;

(iii) liaison between institutions of higher learning and between such institutions and Government research establishments and special Central institutes and academies;

(iv) courses of study at various levels and their duration; and

(v) the medium of teaching and examination.

Five-Year Plans : Government spending on education between 1947 and 1957 showed an increase from 1.0 per cent of the gross national product to 1.2 per cent. By 1964/65, the rate of expenditure, amounting to Rs. 728.5 million, had increased to about 1.6 per cent of the GNP at current factor cost (i.e. Rs. 45,535 million at market prices; including indirect taxes, but excluding subsidies, it was Rs. 48,616 million). But hereafter this proportion declined to 1.38 per cent in 1969/70, with an estimated educational expenditure of Rs. 1,036.5 million and a GNP, at current factor cost, of Rs. 74,971 million. This excludes expenditure on health education, labour training, etc., which, if added, would increase the percentage somewhat. Similarly, annual public expenditure on education more than quadrupled, from about Rs. 230 million in 1959/60 to Rs. 1,036.5 million in 1969/70: about Rs. 8.73 per capita of population (128.4 million) as against Rs. 2.34 per capita of population (98.88 million) in 1959/60. In 1969/70, this public expenditure amounted to about Rs. 71.90 per student for a total enrolment of about 14.4 million, as against Rs. 36.33 per student in 1959/60 for a total enrolment of about 6.33 million. The Fourth Plan proposes to spend a total of Rs. 9,185 million to meet capital and recurring costs of education over the period 1970/71-1974/75, which, taken in relation to an enrolment estimated to rise at a cumulative rate of 6.5 per cent per year, may be envisaged as involving an expenditure of Rs. 1,614 million in 1970/71, rising progressively to an expenditure of Rs. 2,075 million in 1974/75. On this basis, the per student expenditure for a total enrolment of 21,644,000 in 1974/75 would amount to about Rs. 95.87.

The public sector allocation to education in the four Five-Year Plans has increased substantially with each successive period: Rs. 230 million in the First, Rs. 1,100 million in the Second,. Rs. 2,374 million in the Third, and Rs. 3,665 million in the Fourth.

The Third Plan allocation for education and training raised the Second Plan's level of investment in this sector by nearly two and a half times, even after the December 1966 revision (following the September 1965 armed conflict with India) had reduced the original allocation of Rs. 2,730 million to Rs. 2,374 million. The proposed programme presented the following main objectives: broadening the base of education by a substantial expansion at the primary level; accelerating the development of technical education; and improving the quality of education at all levels, with particular emphasis on promoting education in the natural sciences. As a result of shortfalls in financial resources, however, in the first four years of the Plan, allocations made available in the Annual Development Plans amounted to no more than 50 per cent of the Third Plan's proposed investment, and the actual utilization of funds was even lower due to time-lags in the execution of educational programmes. Including the estimated expenditure on education in the last year of the Plan, bringing the total expenditure over five years to Rs. 1,328.32 million, the percentage fulfilment of the Plan target amounts to no more than 56 per cent. This situation in turn resulted in a shortage of resources to meet expenditure on salaries of new teachers and on the purchase of equipment and materials (which also involved foreign exchange) required for deve-

lopment programmes in the fields of scientific and technical education. The combination of all these factors, further complicated by continuing high percentages for drop-outs and failures at most levels of education, has resulted in a concomitant shortfall in the achievement of physical objectives, which are noted in the following sections on different levels and types of education. In particular, as the *Preliminary Evaluation of the Third Five-Year Plan* points out, "There is nothing to indicate that any substantial qualitative improvement has been achieved." In addition, " . . .the literacy level, as a percentage of the total population, remained at about 16 per cent. Despite this low percentage of literacy and the educated population, the imbalance between the supply and manpower needs in relation to job opportunities continued to persist, resulting in rising unemployment and widespread frustration among the educated youth. (Also see chapter on Manpower).

Primary Education : The Government runs most of the primary schools (Grades I-V for the 5-9 age group), and also helps private institutions by means of substantial grants. Independent schools—which are often part of larger institutions also comprising secondary schools—rely on donations, and usually charge comparatively higher fees. Since many children, particularly in rural areas, do not continue their studies beyond the primary stage, the curriculum is designed to serve a dual purpose; it is both self-contained and preparatory, an end for many and a beginning for some. The curriculum includes the three Rs, social studies, elementary science, arts and crafts, manual labour and other activities to help develop fundamental skills. Religion is a compulsory subject throughout the primary stage.

While the Government is anxious to achieve universal primary education, limited resources of both teachers and finance mean that this objective can only be achieved gradually as further resources are mobilized. The Perspective Plan, 1965-85, had envisaged that schooling up to grade V (recognized as a minimum requirement for lasting literacy) would be universal for boys by 1975 and up to grade VIII by 1980, and for girls by 1980 and 1985, respectively; but as indicated below, it appears that these targets will have to be postponed. Whereas during 1955-60 enrolments in grades I-V increased by only 880,000, during 1960-65 these increased by some 2.2 million. While during 1955-60 it proved possible to increased the percentage of the relevant age group at school only slightly from 31.5 per cent to 33.4 per cent , by 1965 the percentage had been raised to about 39 (taking the relevant age group to number about 18 million in 1965).

During the Third Plan period, primary (grade I-V) enrolment rose to about 10.5 million by 1969/70, implying that about 51 per cent of the relevant age group (5-9 years: 20.559 million) were at school against the Plan target of 70 per cent, though in fact of course a significant proportion of the actual enrolment were over-age. Apart from improvements in existing schools, in East Pakistan 3,266 schools left unfinished at the end of the Second Plan period were completed and 1,062 new schools were set up against a target of 1,414, bringing the total number of primary schools to 29,400; while in West Pakistan 5,000 new primary schools were opened against a target of 25,000,



A kindergarten class at a private school in Karachi.

bringing the total number of primary schools to 40,600. Primary enrolments in East Pakistan increased from 4.16 million in 1964/65 to 6.30 million in 1969/70, against a target of 7.16 million; while corresponding figures for West Pakistan stood at 3.15 million in 1964/65 and 4.20 million in 1969/70, against a target of 5.95 million.

Even the limited increase in enrolments has not been accompanied by an adequate corresponding increase in the number of teachers, so that the average pupil-teacher ratio of about 49 : 1 is disturbingly high, particularly in East Pakistan, where the number of teachers increased by only 15,000—i.e. only one new teacher for an additional enrolment of 143 pupils—although the total output of trained primary school teachers amounted to no less than 31,300. This kind of expansion which goes beyond the limits of financial resources represents a sad and huge wastage. Thus, in East Pakistan, over 50 per cent of the teachers trained in five years at considerable cost were either idle or active in occupations for which they had not been trained, while on the other hand, in many cases the shortage of teachers at schools must necessarily reduce the teaching process to a near mockery. Nevertheless, it is claimed that the retention rate of students from grades I to V has improved from 25 to 40 per cent in East Pakistan and from 50 to 60 per cent in West Pakistan. But even on this estimate, it is still admitted that 40 to 60 per cent of those entering grade I do not go on to complete grade V; and past



An outdoor village school class in West Pakistan.

experience suggests that most of the drop-outs must be occurring between grades I-III, so that most of them probably lapse into illiteracy. Investigations carried out on the subject have also shown that the poor quality of education is responsible for over half these drop-outs. Thus of even the very limited investment in education, at the primary level 40 to 60 per cent of this is utterly wasted. Apparent expansion at this kind of cost is therefor a dubious achievement. The dilemma can be overcome only with an adequate financial provision for consolidation and improvement of educational facilities, even if this involves a reduction in the rate of expansion for enrolments.

The Fourth Plan recognizes the problem, and observes: "Hence, the emphasis at the primary level will be on raising teachers' salaries and over-all quality improvement . . . The real problem of primary education is not so much the provision of buildings and universal enrolments as the production of good teachers (and, one is tempted to add, their employment !). Comprehensive and integrated programmes of improvement of textbooks, instructional materials, use of new techniques of teaching, training of teachers, and supervisory staff will be given high priority . . . Before launching a large-scale expansion of primary education as envisaged in the Fourth Plan, a ground survey of the existing primary schools should be completed. The survey should be carried out on an emergency basis for a correct assessment of the existing facilities with a view to designing the future programme for the introduction of universal primary education by 1980."

The target of the Fourth Plan is to provide 29,400 new primary schools in East Pakistan and 40,600 in West Pakistan, with respective enrolment capacities of 2.8 million and 2.3 million, raising the percentage of enrolment

from the relevant age group from 55 to 67 per cent in East Pakistan and 46 to 65 per cent in West Pakistan. Most of the schools in West Pakistan are to be started as one-teacher schools, together serving a total area about six times the size of East Pakistan with a widely scattered population. The schools in East Pakistan will be larger, mostly enrolling their pupils from compact densely populated areas. "Implementation of this programme", says the Fourth Plan, "will require 155,000 new teachers." This gives a fair if not ideal pupil-teacher ratio 33 : 1; but only if it is assumed that account has been taken and provision made for the fact that new teachers will also be needed to replace teachers retiring or otherwise leaving the profession—at the average annual rate of about 4 per cent of the total teaching force. Thus, with a teaching force of roughly 200,000 primary school teachers in 1969/70, at the end of 1974/75, replacement for some 20 per cent of these, i.e. 40,000 new teachers will have to be found. Alternatively, if this is not done, the pupil-teacher ratio is likely to stay at about 50 : 1, with a teaching force of 315,000 teachers and an enrolment of 15,600,000 pupils. The Plan also indicates that the estimated output of trained teachers over the five Plan years will amount to only 128,000, comprising 71,000 trained teachers in East Pakistan and 57,000 in West Pakistan. Presumably, the remaining 27,000 to 67,000 (depending on whether the replacement factor is not or is taken into account) are to be recruited from a stock of previously trained teachers at present not part of the teaching force or from other educated unemployed and untrained sources—the Plan itself does not clarify.

A class at a girls' school in Hyderabad, Sind.





A science class at a school in Rawalpindi.

Secondary Education : This is structurally organized in three stages: (i) Middle or Junior Secondary with grades VI-VIII, for the 10-12 age group; (ii) High School with grades IX-X, for the 13-14 age group, leading to the Secondary School Certificate Examination; (iii) Higher Secondary or Intermediate with grades XI-XII, for the 14-16 age group, leading to the Higher Secondary School Certificate or Intermediate Examination.

In addition to its three structural levels, secondary education is made available through three different types of schools. In the first category there are junior/middle schools and high schools with national and regional languages as the medium of instruction; and these, generally charging very moderate fees, constitute the bulk of the secondary school provision. They are managed by Government or local bodies or by private organizations. The second category, which also caters to the popular levels of society, consists of privately managed *maktabs* and *madrasahs*, whose main emphasis is on the teaching of religion and allied subjects. In East Pakistan, there are a particularly large number of *madrasahs*, and at most of these, besides the teaching of Arabic, the medium of instruction for religious education is Urdu. The third category comprises model and public schools,residential schools, cadet colleges, missionary schools and schools managed by autonomous bodies which generally provide at least some residential facilities and use English as the medium of instruction. In contrast to the first category, these schools generally charge high fees and are thus largely restricted to children of the higher income groups. This incidentally is at least a good part of the reason

for English even after 23 years of independence remaining a status symbol and punctuating common educated speech with English words and phrases in most of the country's languages, but particularly so in the case of Urdu. And the words so adopted and widely used are not restricted to technical or abstract conceptual terms, but include such ordinary ones as mother, father, uncle, walk, talk, left, right, action, practice, value, liver, signal, control, etc., etc.

Furthermore, the three types of schools tend to create different types of value systems in society and have little in common with each other; so that the Fourth Plan again stresses that "In order that education may serve as a unifying force, it is essential that the gulf existing between various types of schools is gradually narrowed down. An important step towards this end will be to evolve a comprehensive curriculum with a common base for all schools, so as to allow students mobility from one type of secondary school to another."

It is also to be noted that no less than 85 per cent of the secondary schools are privately managed (97 per cent in East and 67 per cent in West Pakistan), although about 70 per cent of the enrolment up to grade VIII is in schools administered by the Government or local bodies, and even for grades IX-X, private schools account for no more than 65 per cent of the total enrolment in these grades.

The Education Commission Report 1959, had recommended that the system of secondary education should be reviewed to free it from an excessively academic-literary orientation and ensure (i) that it provided a complete self-contained stage possessing objectives, purposes and methods of teaching which would clearly demarcate it from university education, and (ii) that it catered for students who would enter a variety of careers at the end of their schooling. In other words, the final stages of secondary education were not only to prepare students for higher education or training, but also for skilled work of various types. Other proposed aims of secondary education were to promote the spirit of nationhood, to build individual character and to develop social service. Following up these recommendations, a Curriculum Committee, consisting of experienced headmasters and inspectors of education from all over the country worked through the greater part of 1960 preparing curricula and syllabi to meet the recommended objectives. The new curricula and syllabi thus prepared in 1961 under the auspices of the Ministry of Education were adopted, and are generally in force till today for secondary schools on a nation-wide basis. These provided for a core of compulsory subjects (including science and mathematics throughout and religion up to grade X) to ensure an adequate level of general education, and a wide range of elective subjects, including many of a technical-vocational character to suit different aptitudes and inclinations.

Due to difficulties of providing the requisite teachers as well as the necessary laboratories, workshops and equipment, particularly in most private schools, it has so far been possible to make only a beginning in the direction of the full implementation of the revised curricula. This problem is particularly acute in East Pakistan, where, according to the Fourth Plan

". . . out of 3,420 secondary schools, facilities for teaching elective science (as distinct from compulsory science, for which arrangements are said to be present at 1,625 schools) exist in 830 schools only. In addition, "The over-all proportion of untrained secondary school teachers is as high as 80 per cent, and about 90 per cent of the non-government secondary school teachers are untrained."

While during the Third Plan period some successes were achieved in the improvement of Government secondary schools—particularly in terms of introducing craft courses generally and compulsory science courses in high schools—these have not been matched in the private sector, and a large expansion of private secondary education facilities has taken place outside the Plan framework. Therefore the emphasis in the Fourth Plan period "will essentially be on the consolidation of existing secondary schools. Qualitative improvement will, for the purposes of development, be the first priority. The programme of diversified courses will be intensified . . . The Fourth Plan objective will be to achieve an enrolment ratio of 40 : 60 between the arts programme and the scientific, technical and vocational programmes . . . Curricula of *madrasahs* will be broadened and modified so as to allow the teaching of science, mathematics and vocational subjects . . . it is becoming absolutely necessary that most of the students study elective science, mathematics and other subjects of vocational importance. Hence, the teaching of elective science and mathematics will be taken up with increased vigour, and essential facilities for the teaching of science and mathematics at the desired level will be provided in the schools. Rural schools will be provided with facilities for teaching farm techniques and other related subjects . . . Pre-vocational courses imparting basic knowledge of crops and crop storage, agricultural equipment, soils, seeds, rural carpentry, first aid and nutrition will be provided . . ." (Also see section on vocational and Technical Education.)

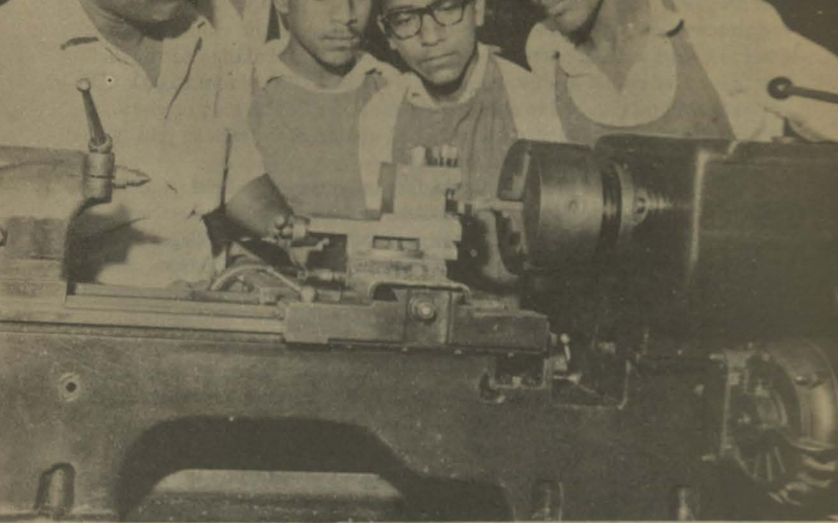
Of the children who complete their primary schooling, about 20 per cent now go on to the secondary stage as compared to less than 10 per cent in 1947/48. Enrolments in grades VI-X doubled in the 10 years between 1954/55 and 1964/65, growing at a cumulative annual rate of 7.5 per cent, from 829,000 to 1,650,000; and in the following five years, rose at an even more rapid annual rate, of over 10 per cent, to 2.71 million in 1969/70. The number of matriculates—graduates of grade X—has similarly increased at a rapid rate from 80,600 in 1960 to about 217,000 in 1969. The Fourth Plan envisages a further expansion of enrolments amounting to about 1 million for grades VI-VIII, equally divided between East and West Pakistan, raising their respective enrolments from 1,040,000 and 900,000 in 1969/70 to 1,540,000 and 1,400,000 in 1974/75; and for grades IX-X, to about 435,000, again shared equally between East and West Pakistan, raising the respective enrolment levels from 395,000 and 375,000 in 1969/70 to 615,000 and 590,000 in 1974/75 (including enrolments in Matric Tech.).

The total teaching force for grades VI-X in 1968/69 numbered about 110,000, giving a pupil-teacher ratio of about 22 : 1; but over 36 per cent of these were untrained, with a major regional difference in this regard, since, while only about 15 per cent of the teaching force in West Pakistan was un-

trained, the proportion of untrained teachers in East Pakistan was about 80 per cent. The Fourth Plan targets for the output of secondary school teachers will help to improve this situation only slightly, since against a requirement of 28,000 new teachers in East Pakistan, the output over the five Plan years will amount to only 15,000, while in West Pakistan corresponding figures for output against requirement will be 25,000 against 30,000. Of special measures required to meet the situation, the Fourth Plan suggests,one "would be to appoint first class untrained graduates to teaching jobs, who could undergo training at some later stage."

Education at the higher secondary or Intermediate level (grades XI-XII) is provided at two-year Intermediate colleges, of which there are 150 in East and 145 in West Pakistan, and at four-year degree colleges of arts and science, of which there are 136 in East and 150 in West Pakistan. Public examinations for the Higher School (Intermediate) Certificate are conducted by the Board of Intermediate and Secondary Education. Enrolments at this level, of whom girls form about 13 per cent, have increased with extreme rapidity within the past 10 years, particularly in East Pakistan: while Intermediate enrolments for the country as a whole more than quadrupled from 79,000 in 1959/60 to 340,000 in 1969/70, East Pakistan's increase from 35,000 to 200,000 amounted to 471 per cent, against West Pakistan's from 44,000 to 140,000, amounting to 218 per cent. Showing some reduction in the failure rate, the output of students successfully completing the Intermediate rose five-fold from 21,061 in 1960 to about 109,000 in 1969. Only about one-fourth of the Intermediate enrolments are in science, and the ratio of science students in the output is about the same. The Fourth Plan accordingly envisages reducing the rate of expansion, providing for the introduction of only 110,000 new places, an increase of little over 32 per cent, as against an increase of over 93 per cent in the previous five years. Moreover, 60 per cent of the new places are to be created for science subjects, with the remaining 40 per cent for arts, commerce, etc. The large bulk of the Intermediate output consists of students passing the examination at the third division or lower second division level; and it is these students, who are generally neither fitted for higher education (whose admission capacity for first degree classes is in any case limited to about 40,000) nor equipped with any particular skills, who present the most serious problem of educated employment. The solution to the problem can only be found in revising the Intermediate curricula to make them both more functional and terminal as well as preparatory for higher education, and in the long run diverting more students to the vocational/technical stream.

Vocational/Technical Education and Training : Vocational and technical education and training is provided at three levels: (i) certificate level, to which students are generally admitted after a minimum of 8-10 years of general education for short-term certificate trade courses or vocational schools (grades IX-X); (ii) diploma level, to which students are admitted after matriculation, following 10 years of schooling, of which the last two to five years may be in a vocational/technical stream, for three-year diploma courses (grades XI-XIII); (iii) degree level, for which courses are offered at some



Young trainees learning to operate a lathe.

general universities as well as at two engineering and two agricultural universities, and data on which is outlined under the section on Higher Education.

Certificate Level : This is the level at which skilled operatives and craftsmen are to be trained for industries, and skilled farmers and agricultural field workers for agriculture. Presently there is no systematic pattern of training, although there are some 35 Government vocational institutes/technical high schools in East Pakistan and 40 in West Pakistan, with respective enrolments of only 4,000 and 5,000 pupils in 1969/70. Some training is also conducted by public corporations and by private industry through apprenticeship programmes. "The scattered nature of training and the indefiniteness of its contents", according to the Fourth Plan, "impede worker mobility, hinder recruitment of talented people to operational tasks, and in general reduce productivity."

Privately administered vocational training programmes are to be promoted and overseen by an autonomous National Board of Training, whose administrative activities are to be decentralized to training regions in each Province. The on-the-job training may be financed by a suitable levy on the pay-roll of all private employers in all sectors of the economy who have 50 or more permanent employees. It is estimated that a 2 per cent levy will yield funds sufficient to cover 50 per cent of the cost of training, which may, if necessary, also be subsidized by the Government. The levy is to be

operated by the National Board, which would then make funds available from it for research as well as training. This type of training levy was adopted in France in 1930, extensively and successfully operated in Latin America, and taken up in the United Kingdom as recently as 1964. As pointed out in the Fourth Plan, this type of training has the following advantages : "the training would be relevant to the tasks that the craftsman was eventually to perform independently; the training system would be flexible, in that the courses of training would be adjusted strictly to the time it takes to learn a given skill, not to an academic calendar; the training would be immediately put to use, because the persons receiving it would already be hired and on the job; the flow of funds to finance the training activities would automatically adjust itself to the rate at which more sophisticated grades of labour" were replacing comparatively unskilled labour.

However, to supplement this effort and also make provisions for vocational training in the formal stream of education—for girls as well as boys—the Government plans to achieve a substantial expansion in the number of vocational institutes and technical high schools (grades IX-X). In East Pakistan, where the programme of establishing a vocational high school in each thana had by the middle of 1970 led to the establishment of 35 such schools, another 145 are to be set up during the Fourth Plan period, each with an enrolment of 250 pupils, amounting to a total enrolment of 45,000 by 1974/75. Similarly in West Pakistan, which, however, has both a wider practice of private vocational training and a wider base for its expansion, 60 vocational institutes are to be added to the 40 already in existence, with total enrolment in grade IX-X vocational education rising from 5,000 in 1969/70 to 40,000 in 1974/75. Students in these courses, in addition to receiving training in various trades, will also be studying Urdu/Bengali,

A radio electronics training course at a technical institute in East Pakistan.



mathematics, and natural sciences, the last two being taught intensively but with a practical work orientation. A newly designed examination, Matric (Tech.), is to be administered at the end of the course, with the certificate holding "parity of esteem" with Matric (Arts/Science). Such increased emphasis on formal vocational training also implies a need for well-trained teachers of trade and technical subjects, and it is intended to provide an annual outflow of 400 such teachers from a two-year course of training. This target appears to be low in relation to an average annual enrolment increase of 15,200, but may suffice with some part-time help and the estimated stock of teachers already available at vocational high schools. Finally, five pilot technical high schools for girls are planned for each of the country's five Provinces, which will specialize in social welfare training. In addition to language, science and mathematics, courses at these schools are to include the following practical subjects: basic concepts of preventive medicine, child-care, librarianship, teaching of verbal and numerical literacy to adults, simple book-keeping, nutrition and home economics.

Concerning instruction in agriculture, it has been recognized that experience in other countries indicates that attempts to establish agricultural high schools are likely to be ineffective. As an alternative, it is now intended that all students in rural areas in grades VI-X should receive two hours per week of instruction in applied agriculture. Where possible, the instruction will be conducted at the site of a demonstration farm or block station. In all cases, the instruction is to be given by trained teachers of agriculture or agricultural extension workers, and will deal with soil characteristics, plant protection, multiple cropping, interdependence among seed varieties, fertilizers, pesticides, natural and irrigated waters, marketing, storage, crop transport, forestry, farm mechanics, farm accounts and credit. Whether the children of 11-15 receiving such instruction will in a significant way, as anticipated, be able to influence their parents and later, as adults, apply what they have learnt or be quicker in responding to agricultural extension workers, remains to be seen. It seems a lot to expect from 2-hour-a-week courses, which in an academic year will amount to less than a total of 80 hours; but much will not only depend on the quality of the instruction, but also on the *parallel* work done with the parents of these children, in terms of functional adult education as well as agricultural extension.

Diploma Level (I. Tech. and B. Tech.) : At the end of the Third Plan period, 22 technical colleges/polytechnics had been set up in East Pakistan, with an enrolment of 9,000 in 1969/70 and an annual admission capacity of 3,900. Corresponding figures for West Pakistan stand at 19 technical colleges/polytechnics, with an enrolment of 9,000 in 1969/70 and an annual admission capacity of 3,500. However, the output of qualified diploma technicians in 1969/70 was much higher in West Pakistan, at 2,500 against 1,300 in East Pakistan, for which reasons are not given. Apart from developing polytechnics into technical colleges, and bringing the number of these in both wings of the country to 25 each, the Fourth Plan proposes to use its five years for consolidation and curricular reform of this type of education,

particularly as it is frequently reported that diploma-holders in at least some technologies are finding it difficult to secure employment. The emphasis in curricular reform shall be on providing, not higher class craftsman's skills, but on the application of basic concepts of modern science to production and maintenance problems, with due concomitant manual skill development, constantly combining practice with theory. In line with this objective, 'sandwich programmes' are also to be introduced in the three-year diploma sequence. After the first year has been spent in full-time formal study, the second and third years will be spent in alternating cycles, six months in the technical colleges and six months in industry, the diploma thus being earned after a total of two years of formal study and one year of on-the-job training. The programmes are to be co-operatively designed by the institutions and future employers of the trainees. Thus, apart from making the education and training as realistic and functional as possible in relation to current machinery and development in factories, these programmes will also bring trainee and future employer into contact even before he gets his diploma, and also enable him to earn a little during his six-month on-the-job training in his second and third years.

Finally, the technical colleges are also to be encouraged to offer the following type of courses for part-time students already working in industry: foremanship; training of industrial workers; entrepreneurship (small business management); and industrial problem solving.

As a result of the consolidation and development programmes, it is envisaged that by 1974/75 the intake capacity of the technical institutions should increase to 8,000 in East and 7,000 in West Pakistan, with total enrolments amounting to 20,000 and 18,000 respectively.

Commercial Institutes : These institutions also admit students who have matriculated after 10 years of general education, and offer one and two-year certificate and diploma courses. At present, 38 institutes (16 in East Pakistan —13 forming parts of polytechnics and 3 independent—and 22 in West Pakistan) are in operation under Government management, while there are also many private commercial schools and colleges in the cities.

Teacher Training : At present primary school teachers are trained in primary training institutes in East Pakistan and Normal Schools in West Pakistan; and secondary school teachers are trained at teacher training colleges or at University Institutes of Education. Both the primary training institutes/ Normal Schools and the teacher training colleges are maintained and managed by Departments of Education and have no organizational links—or indeed any other kind of contact—with universities. This is a situation which should surely be reviewed in the interest of developing co-operative efforts between universities and teacher training institution to improve the quality of teacher training, particularly for middle and high schools.

For primary school teachers, the Third Plan indicated that while "the long-term objective is to raise the minimum qualifications" of these, in the Plan period, "we shall have to rest content with existing prescribed qualifica-

tions, namely matriculation (grade X qualifying examination) with one year's training." The Fourth Plan adds no more on this question than to say,". . . the Fourth Plan envisages early revision of the curricula, equipment and facilities essential for qualitative improvement . . . Expert committees will be set up to revise the curricula of teacher training institutes." For middle school (grades VI-VIII) teachers, the general minimum qualification has now been raised to the Certificate of Education (CT), awarded after two years of training, following the Higher School Certificate/Intermediate, whereas previously matriculates with two years' training were also accepted as teachers for middle schools. For high school (grades IX-X) and Intermediate (grades XI-XII), the minimum teaching qualification is a bachelor's degree followed by one year of teacher training, at the end of which the teacher training college awards a Bachelor of Training diploma (BT), and the University Faculties and Institutes of Education a Bachelor of Education degree (BEd). In addition, Education Extension Centres offer short refresher courses for teachers, for which a minimum duration of three months was recommended in the Third Plan, which also proposed that "In-service training for teachers of secondary schools should be compulsory, and they should be required to undergo such training at least once in five years."

The Fourth Plan adds, "Facilities presently available at existing Education Extension Centres and other in-service training centres, especially for primary schools, are extremely limited as compared to the current requirement. Available accommodation, equipment and libraries of existing training institutions, colleges of general education and, if necessary, of high schools will be utilized in organizing intensive in-service training programmes for teachers of all categories. These programmes will be organized round the year specially by the Education Extension Centres." In addition, on an experimental scale, teams of exceptionally competent teachers, equipped with films demonstrating superior techniques of teaching, are to tour schools in designated parts of each Province in a number of mobile vans. These mobile groups of teachers "will seek to gain the interest of teachers in new developments in pedagogy in somewhat the same way that agricultural extension workers seek to provide the farmer with current practical information about improved agricultural techniques."

Programmes of both pre-service and in-service training for vocational/technical teachers are carried out at selected technical colleges/polytechniques. In addition, the following special provisions for vocational/technical teacher training are now also available: a technical teacher training college at Lyallpur; a teacher-training wing attached to the Swedish-Pakistani Institute of Technology, Landhi (Karachi); a technical teacher training college at Dacca, started in 1964/65 and incorporating the former teacher-training wing of the Dacca Polytechnic. Finally, for the envisaged consolidation and expansion of vocational/technical education, the Fourth Plan has recommended the development of training facilities to provide an annual output of 400 vocational/technical teachers. There is, however, a major problem that will be encountered in trying to reach a qualitative standard where the teacher of a technical or vocational subject is at least as good as a foreman in the

corresponding industrial field: such a teacher, is unlikely to want to teach unless his salary is also at least as good as that of a capable foreman. And in so far as the financial provision may not be sufficient to do so on a sufficiently large scale, it will then be necessary to consider a system of part-time teaching arrangements, which are in fact utilized by many countries the world over.

The planned development of teacher training between 1970/71 and 1974/75 envisages increasing (i) the output of primary school teachers from 7,000 to 20,000 in East Pakistan and from 10,000 to 15,000 in West Pakistan, and (ii) of secondary school teachers from 1,700 to 4,000 in East Pakistan and 3,100 to 4,500 in West Pakistan. Towards these ends, in East Pakistan, 47 existent primary training institutes are to be expanded and 52 new teacher training institutes are to be set up; while in West Pakistan provisions for the achievement of the output objective are to be made on the basis of Provincial programmes and in line with the target of producing 57,000 primary school teachers during the Plan period. At the secondary teaching level, the Fourth plan stresses that "Training teachers of science, mathematics and diversified courses will require special attention. New training programmes will have to be devised for these teachers, who will be in great demand in the future. As a matter of urgency, premier degree colleges may have a special department to train science and mathematics teachers. Further, the existing training institutes will be consolidated and a few more training colleges of various types will be established."

The current proportion of female teachers in all categories of education is very low, particularly in East Pakistan, where their number is negligible. Under the Fourth Plan, special incentives are to be provided to attract more women to the teaching profession, together with an adequate provision of training facilities.

Finally, as the improvement of training programmes will largely depend on the success of programmes of educational research, special attention is also to be given to strengthening the research programmes at University Institutes of Education, while training colleges will also be encouraged to undertake programmes of research—particularly as it has not proved possible to do anything so far with respect to the Third Plan objective of introducing research programmes at 13 teacher training colleges (also see Education under following section on Higher Education).

Higher Education : Courses for a first degree in general arts and science subjects at present extend over two years: although the Education Commission had recommended that these should be expanded to cover a period of three years, it has so far not been possible to implement this recommendation. However, a first degree with honours does now require an additional year of study in both arts and science subjects. First degrees in professional subjects generally require a minimum of three to four years' study after grade XII, or five to six years after grade X, the main exceptions being medicine, which requires a minimum of five years, and teacher training, which requires one year. It is also for honours and professional subjects that entrance require-



A microbiology class at a girls' college.

ments become strict, and selections are made on the basis of marks obtained in the Intermediate and/or Matriculation and, in some instances, specific aptitude tests or other entrance examinations.

In 1969/70, there were a total of over 300 degree colleges or institutes (not including some 365 Intermediate colleges) affiliated to 12 universities, which prescribe degree courses and conduct examinations. In addition, the universities also carry out teaching for honours and post-graduate courses —M.A. and M.Sc. courses requiring a minimum of two years' study beyond the first pass degree (one year after an Honours' degree). Some colleges of an established standard are also permitted to conduct honours and post-graduate courses in specified subjects.

In the 10 years between 1959/60 and 1969/70 enrolments in higher education (excluding Intermediate enrolments) have increased 4.5 times from about 40,200 to over 180,000 *. The distribution of these enrolments estimated for the years 1968/69 and 1969/70 are given in Table VIII. While over-all enrolments in East Pakistan have grown only slightly more rapidly than in West Pakistan over this period, by 372 per cent against 351 per cent, according to the Education Index figures (see Table VIII-B), enrolments in general

*If higher secondary enrolments are included, as in the 1970 *Year-Book*, the respective totals amount to 119,200 and 530,000. Also, according to the Fourth Plan estimates, total enrolment in higher education amounts to only 156,250.

pass degree courses have increased more rapidly in East Pakistan by 400 per cent, in comparison with 275 per cent for West Pakistan. (According to Table V, based on Fourth Plan estimates, the percentage increases in degree-stage enrolments over the same period amount to about 346 per cent for East and 275 per cent for West Pakistan). In any case, it may also be noted that in the previous 10 years between 1951 and 1961 the enrolment at universities in East Pakistan had, in contrast, increased by only 47 per cent against an increase of over 420 per cent in West Pakistan.

The two most striking features of the balance of enrolments are (a) the comparatively small proportion of students in the professional fields and (b) in particular that at about 4,400 the 1969/70 enrolment in teacher training colleges and faculties and institutes of education amounts to less than 2.5 per cent of the total higher education enrolment. Manpower studies at present under way should show how far this situation needs to be adjusted. The Government has already laid special stress on the development of scientific and technical education, and expansion in these fields is progressing more rapidly than in other sectors of education.

It is also interesting to note that, at this level of education, girls form about 17 per cent of the total enrolment—rising in the case of the Panjab University to 30 per cent and at Karachi University to over 50 per cent. Their performance at university examinations maintains a higher average standard than that of male students.

The degree colleges account for about 80 per cent of Pakistan's total enrolment in higher education. More than 70 per cent of the degree colleges

A physics practical class at Dacca University.

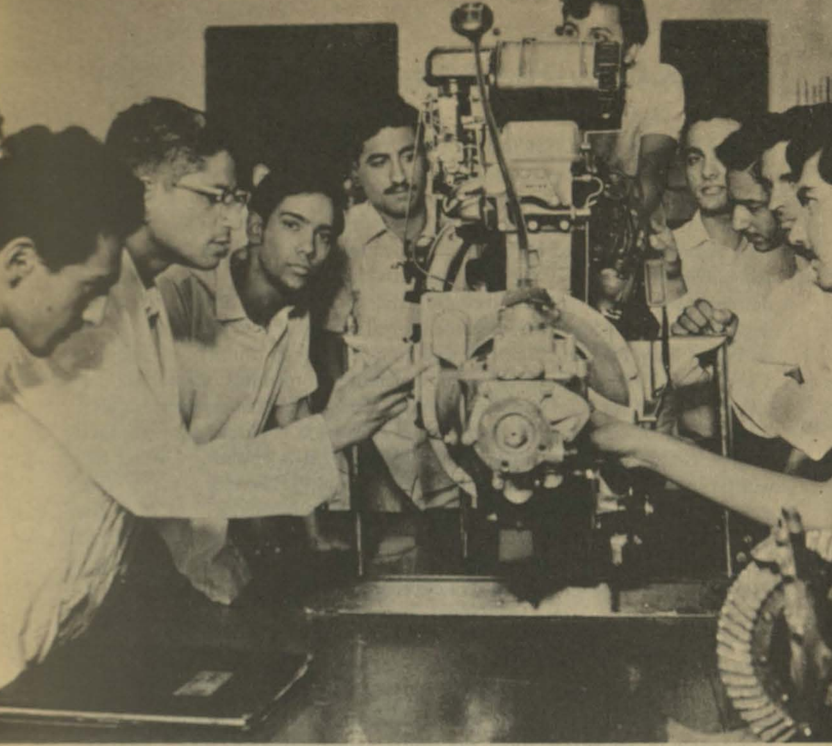


are owned privately, although most of them receive grants-in-aid from the Government. Because of this preponderance of private ownership, the 1964 Commission on Student Problems and Welfare recommended the following measures as safeguards against the commercialization of education; (a) grants-in-aid to be made on uniform principles and calculated on the basis of approved items of expenditure; (b) affiliation to universities to be made contingent upon: (i) their having governing bodies with an official chairman (Commissioner, Deputy Commissioner, or his nominee) and other representatives of the Government, the university and the guardians, (ii) their providing standard conditions of service for the staff ; (c) a committee of elected members (from among college principals) headed by the local Director of Education to advise on grants-in-aid, and also to act as the appellate body against decisions made by the governing body of any college. Nevertheless, the maintenance of standards at these institutions, with few exceptions, remains the major problem of higher education, although in general, too, it is feared that over the years academic standards have been falling rather than rising—at least in so far as the average, as distinct from the brilliant, student is concerned.

Universities : Pakistan has 12 universities and two more are to be opened soon. They are, in order of establishment : The University of the Panjab at Lahore (1882), Dacca (1921), Sind at Hyderabad (1947), Peshawar (1950), Karachi (1951), Rajshahi (1953), the Agricultural Universities at Mymensingh and Lyallpur, and Engineering and Technological Universities at Dacca and Lahore (1961), Islamabad (1965) and Chittagong (1966). The thirteenth is to be established at Jahangirnagar near Dacca and the fourteenth in Baluchistan at Quetta.

All the Universities are teaching and, with the exception of the University of Islamabad and the Agricultural and Engineering Universities, affiliating bodies. Also, with the exception of the Central University of Islamabad, whose Chanceller is the President of Pakistan, the *ex-officio* Chancellors of all the other universities are the Provincial Governors of their respective Provinces. They appoint a Vice-Chancellor as the academic and administrative head of each university. A Registrar, a Treasurer and a Controller of Examinations assist the Vice-Chancellor in the performance of his tasks.

Administrative and financial authority resides in a Syndicate, which includes the Vice-Chancellor, representatives of the Provincial Education Department, senior professors of the university, Principals of important affiliated colleges in the case of affiliating universities, and persons nominated by the Chancellor. The Syndicate is aided by the Academic Council, the Faculties, the Boards of Studies, the Selection Board, the Committee for Advanced Studies and Research, the Finance Committee and the Planning and Development Committee. Changes regarding the autonomy and the administrative structure of university, including the reinstitution of a University Senate and increased teacher participation in determining university policy, have been proposed, and some of these are in the process of being



Practicals in mechanical engineering at Peshawar University.

introduced.

Government expenditure on university grants has been increasing rapidly. Most of the universities have been reconstructing their buildings, libraries and laboratories on well-planned modern lines. The Government bears 70 per cent of the total expenditure of each university.

A general university has arts, science and other faculties divided into departments for principal subjects. These provide courses in the arts, social sciences, physical sciences, medicine, and such specialized subjects as architecture, demography and town planning. Most of the universities offer such higher research degrees as the PhD, LLM, LLD, DLitt, DSc and DEd.

While noting both that university enrolments in science are considerably lower than in arts subjects and that, on the other hand, there is an increasing pressure for admission to science honours and post-graduate courses, the Fourth Plan proposes that new nucleus universities should be set up with a selected range of studies based on a strong degree college and other existing physical facilities. In addition to the measures already adopted to establish new universities at Jahangirnagar and Quetta, the Plan indicates possibilities of starting further universities at Multan or Sargodha in the Panjab, and at Barisal or Daulatpur in the Khulna Division of East Pakistan, and at Sylhet,

also in East Pakistan. It further proposes "that the above universities be established at a minimum cost out of funds allocated for this purpose during the Plan period." This means five new universities—nuclear and modest as they may be—within five years, not counting the Central University for East Pakistan proposed by the New Education Policy, on the pattern of the Islamabad University ! So the Plan provides Rs. 340 million towards the development of universities, including the strengthening of existing science departments as well as the above-mentioned expansion; but provides a total outlay of only Rs. 30 million for scientific research at universities, less than 1 per cent of the public development expenditure on education and less than 0.4 per cent of the total public development *and* recurrent expenditure on it. In this kind of situation, if the proposed expansion is pushed through, there may be these institutions called universities, but it is doubtful whether they will be universities in anything but name. And if this does come to pass, a further and disastrous fall in standards will be inevitable. In any case, the priority here apparently given to institutional expansion, as distinct from consolidationand development of existing institutions, hardly seems to be in line with the New Education Policy emphasis on "the paramount importance of quality."

Education : Institutes, Faculties or Colleges of Education at the Universities of Panjab, Dacca, Sind, Karachi, Rajshahi and Peshawar offer courses in education and teacher training and carry out educational research. For the first degree in education (BEd), the course extends over one year following a bachelor's degree in arts or science. Courses for a Master's degree in education (MEd) are also offered by all of these universities, requiring two years of study after the BEd or BT at the University of the Panjab, Sind, Karachi and Dacca, and one to two years after the BEd or a Bachelor's or Master's degree in arts or science at Rajshahi and Peshawar.

In addition, Panjab University also provides a two-year MEd (Tech.) course in industrial arts and business education, and requires two years of teaching experience after a BEd or BT as a preparation for entry to its Master's courses in education; Dacca offers a one-year course leading to a BPEd (Bachelor of physical education); Sind makes provisions for one-year diploma courses in teaching (TD) and in vocational guidance (DVG) for students who have passed their Intermediate in arts or science, a BA (Hons.) course in education extending over three years following the Intermediate, and it also offers facilities for study towards a doctorate in education (DEd) awarded three to six years after a Master's degree. Finally, in the field of agriculture, the West Pakistan University of Agriculture offers short-term courses to train agriculture teachers for primary and middle schools in methods of agricultural education, as well as regular programmes leading to, the BEd (Agr.) and MEd (Agr.), the first being awarded after one year's successful study following a BSc in agriculture or an allied discipline, and the second after completion of a further year of study.

The total enrolment in teacher training and education courses at the above-mentioned universities in 1969/70 numbered about 2,700, leaving an

enrolment of about 2,000 at Teacher Training Colleges managed by Departments of Education.

Agriculture : Pakistan is still basically an agricultural country. The vast majority of the people makes its living from agriculture, and there is a growing demand for people specially trained in modern agricultural techniques and for agricultural research to increase productivity and save wastage. An Agricultural University was set up in each wing in 1961 to provide facilities for higher education and research in agriculture, agricultural economics, agricultural engineering and technology, veterinary science, animal husbandry, fisheries, forestry and other subjects connected with the rural economy. The East Pakistan Agricultural University offers pre-service training and extension courses as well as short courses and in-service refresher courses, mainly through its affiliated East Pakistan Agricultural Institute at Tejgaon, while in West Pakistan, the Agricultural University also offers short courses and organizes both extension and teacher training through its Institute of Teacher Training, Extension and Short Courses.

About 60 per cent of the students at these universities receive State assistance in the form of scholarships or bursaries.

Besides the two Agricultural Universities, there are four agricultural colleges, one in East and three in West Pakistan, in addition to a College of Animal Husbandry at Lahore, which in 1969/70, together were providing courses in agricultural subjects with a total enrolment of 5,200 distributed as follows :

Agricultural Colleges—1,750 (EP 250, WP 1,500)
Agricultural Universities—3,450 (EP 1,450 WP, 2,000).

An experimental class of the Agricultural University, Mymensingh.



Engineering : As for agricultural education, an engineering and technological university was also set up in each wing in 1961 to provide for higher education and research in various engineering disciplines.

In the year 1969/70, there were, besides the Engineering Universities, six engineering colleges, five in West and 1 in East Pakistan, and an Institute of Textile Technology at Lyallpur affiliated to the West Pakistan University of Engineering and Technology, Lahore. The total enrolment of students at these institutions was 8,600, with the following distribution:

Engineering Colleges—3,800 (EP 300, WP 3,500)

Engineering Universities—4,800 (EP 2,250, WP 2,550)

Medicine : From very modest beginnings, Pakistan is now producing about 1,000 doctors and surgeons a year. The total number trained by 1970 comes to about 21,000.

The 13 medical colleges in the country, six in East and seven in West Pakistan, are attached to hospitals where clinical training is given. There is also a Post-Graduate Medical Centre at Jinnah Hospital in Karachi, and research facilities are available at King Edward's Medical College in Lahore. For post-graduate students, a College of Surgery and Hygiene, on the lines of the British Royal College, has recently been set up; and an Institute of Health and Tibbi Research has also been established at Karachi.

Nursing has become a popular profession for women in Pakistan, and the number of trained nurses has risen from 400 in 1947 to almost 5,400 in 1969/70. There are 27 nursing schools which offer a three-year course, with facilities for further study.

Adult Education : The Fourth Plan is the first to give some practical shape to the repeatedly mentioned but constantly ignored sector of Adult Education, by making a Rs. 85 million allocation for it, which amounts to 2.3 per cent of the total public development outlay on education. In relation to the magnitude of the problem and in comparison with the stress the original Proposals for a New Education Policy laid on it, this is clearly a very small beginning; but three specific practical proposals are made to overcome the ineffectualness of previous efforts in this field. (i) Industrial establishments employing 200 or more workers are to establish intensive part-time programmes in verbal and numerical literacy, classes meeting at least three times a week for one hour, and being related to both the worker's home life and the development of his productive skills. (ii) In rural areas, Provincial Governments, supported by the Centre and co-operating with local authorities, are to promote literacy centres closely associated with community development and rural works programmes, as in Comilla, where this approach has yielded fruitful results. In order to encourage and guide a rapid expansion of such efforts, an Advisory Council of Adult Literacy and Adult Education may be set up, at both Central and Povincial levels. Increasing responsibility is, however, to be delegated to local self-governing institutions at different levels. (iii) During peace time the Armed Forces of Pakistan are envisaged as possibly playing an important role in adult education,

helping also to form a base to create a National Educational Corps. Finally, the services of voluntary organizations who have done good work in the field are to be co-ordinated to achieve greater effectiveness for common objectives.

Research : The Inter-University Board helps to co-ordinate research carried out by universities. Encouragement is given in the form of research stipends, scholarships and, for teachers, higher increments and study-leave abroad. The new Islamabad University is primarily intended for the encouragement of research. But by and large universities are starved of funds for research, and their research activities are very limited. For applied research, there are two important organizations: the Council of Scinetific and Industrial Research and the Atomic Energy Commission. The former promotes scientific research with a view to industrial development and maximum utilization of resources; the later deals with radioactive materials, assesses the country's nuclear requirements, and establishes atomic energy and nuclear research institutes. (Also see under the heading of Universities and the chapter on Scientific Research).

The Institute of Islamic Research examines issues and studies proposals from the viewpoint of the teachings of Islam. The Institute exists by virtue of Pakistan's Constitution which also requires that all legislation shall be in conformity with the tenets of Islam. Other institutes, of which some have training functions as well, include the Institute of Development Economics, the National Institute of Public Administration, the Institute of International Affairs, the Institute of Business Administration, and the Academy of Public Administration.

Scholarships and Fellowships : About 7 per cent of the public development expenditure on education goes intothe award of scholarships at the secondary and higher levels. Residential scholarships include board and lodging, tuition, books, other educational expenses, and pocket money. Non-residential scholarships include all other facilities except board and lodging. These scholarships are usually given to children whose parents belong to the lower income bracket, i.e. those who have an income of less than Rs. 500 a month. Various scholarships and bursaries are also offered in institutions of higher education, and particularly in professional fields. Expenditure on scholarships has risen from Rs. 6.8 million in 1960/61 to 37.9 million in 1969/70, under which 64,000 students were benefited, but this still represents less than 2 per cent of the total enrolment above the primary level. Of the total expenditure of Rs. 152.3 million on scholarships in the Third Plan period, over 75 per cent went to science and professional and vocational subjects.

Eight Presidential awards are given to the most outstanding students at the secondary, Intermediate, graduate and post-graduate levels. Scholarships and fellowships are also offered for overseas study by the Government, foreign Governments, international organizations and private bodies. These are generally meant for post-graduate study, research, or practical training. Nearly 150 foreign scholarships/fellowships were available in 1969/70. Cultural exchange programmes with other countries also allow Pakistani

students to study abroad. And at present more than 150 foreign students are studying in Pakistan under such programmes. Two scholarships are also awarded to each university to enable it to send its most brilliant students to pursue further studies abroad.

A Central Overseas Training Scheme selects outstanding scholars in those fields of study which are most relevant to the country's urgent requirements, and sends them abroad for specialized study and training. Over 70 students are at present abroad under this scheme. The Ministry of Education encourages Pakistanis who have studied abroad to return to the country and teach and carry out research at its universities.

There is also a Merit Scholarship Scheme under which students topping the list in MA and MSc examinations of the general universities in Pakistan are awarded scholarships annually for post-graduate studies and research abroad. In 1969, 28 such scholars are studying in various universities abroad, and another 12 to 14 were to go abroad during 1969/70.

At present, there are about 2,000 Pakistanis studying abroad, mainly in Europe, the United States and Japan. More than 30 per cent of them are studying engineering and various forms of technology, while 20 per cent are studying accountancy. The remainder are pursuing studies in the natural sciences, social sciences, law, agriculture and medicine.

Stressing the importance of scholarships in democratizing access to higher education and having a wide catchment area for talent, the Fourth Plan proposes a significant expansion in the programme of scholarships, together with the development and use of more reliable techniques for the identification of talent. In addition, it has proposed introducing a student loan system, particularly for professional and other specialized fields, to enlarge the scope of limited resources. The total Fourth Plan allocation for scholarships amounts to Rs. 266 million, representing 7.3 per cent of the public development expenditure on education.

Medium of Instruction : While the Government has in the past encouraged the use of national languages as media of instruction, the New Education Policy suggests a cautious approach for a smooth and gradual switch-over at the level of higher education (see previous section on this).

At present, apart from a few private schools, where English is the medium of instruction, the majority of primary and secondary schools already use the national and regional languages. At the level of higher education, teaching in the national languages is being gradually introduced, and dictionaries of technical terms are being issued as they are completed for different fields of study.

The national languages are also being developed further with the introduction of new textbooks and literature in these languages. The universities and other institutions which are engaged in this task are receiving assistance and guidance from the Central and Provincial Governments. The Taraqqi-e-Urdu Board, Karachi, which is preparing a comprehensive Urdu lexicon, the two Boards for the promotion of Urdu and Bengali, the Bengali Academy, and the Pakistan Writers' Guild are all actively engaged in this project.

Libraries : The Panjab University has the oldest and most extensive library in Pakistan. It was founded in 1882 and has a collection of over 225,000 volumes, including over 18,000 manuscripts in Urdu, Persian, Arabic, Sanskrit, Hindi, Pali and Gurmukhi. It subscribes to 376 periodicals in various languages. There are about 205,000 volumes at the Dacca University Library, including some 20,000 manuscripts in Arabic, Urdu, Persian and Bengali Punthi. It subscribes to about 350 journals, and there are 26 separate departmental libraries. A textbook section and 17 seminar sections are housed in the Central Library. Karachi University Library comes next, with 150,000 volumes, 2,000 manuscripts, and subscriptions to 1,200 periodicals. The other general university libraries have 70,000 to 90,000 volumes each and subscribe to between 300 and 800 journals.

The Directorate of Archives and Libraries collects and maintains important Government and historical documents for research and reference. The Directorate has three libraries: the Liaquat National Library (150,000 volumes), the Central Secretariat Library (16,000 volumes), and the National Archives Library (7,500 volumes). By 1970, the Directorate was to have two more libraries, at Dacca and Islamabad, respectively. The Directorate also administers the National Bibliographical Unit, which collects bibliographical data on Pakistani books, periodicals, newspapers and Government publications, and the International Book Exchange Centre, which exchanges books with other countries and distributes foreign books it so receives to libraries in Pakistan. The Centre has thus far received over 25,000 books for distribution.

The State Bank of Pakistan has the largest departmental library, with 30,000 volumes, mostly on economics and related subjects. And the National Bank of Pakistan also has a fine departmental library, specializing in economics generally and finance in particular. The library of the Department of Archaeology has 25,000 volumes, and is particularly rich in journals. The Dastur Dhalla Collection, consisting of rare books on Zoroastrianism, Iranistics and comparative religion, was donated to the Archaeological Library by the late Mr. Hoshang Dinshaw of Karachi. The Panjab Public Library has a stock of over 125,000 volumes, including 1,000 rare manuscripts. The National Museum at Karachi and Dacca, the Central Library of Bahawalpur, and the East Pakistan Central Public Library also have substantial collections. All these are maintained by Provincial Governments or municipal committees. The Rajshahi Varendra Research Society has 3,000 ancient Sanskrit, Pali and Bengali manuscripts, some of them written on palm leaf. The All-Pakistan Women's Association has set up a children's library at Karachi, and is in the process of setting up another at Dacca.

Library Associations include the West Pakistan Library Association, the Karachi Library Association, the East Pakistan Library Association and the All-Pakistan Library Association. There is also a Society for the Promotion and Improvement of Libraries at Karachi.

The Associations offer a certificate course in library science, as does the Sind University. The Dacca, Karachi, Lahore and Peshawar Universities conduct post-graduate diploma courses in library science, and the first two

also offer Master's degree courses. In spite of this, there are only a little over 1,000 trained librarians in the country, while the requirement is estimated to be 10,000.

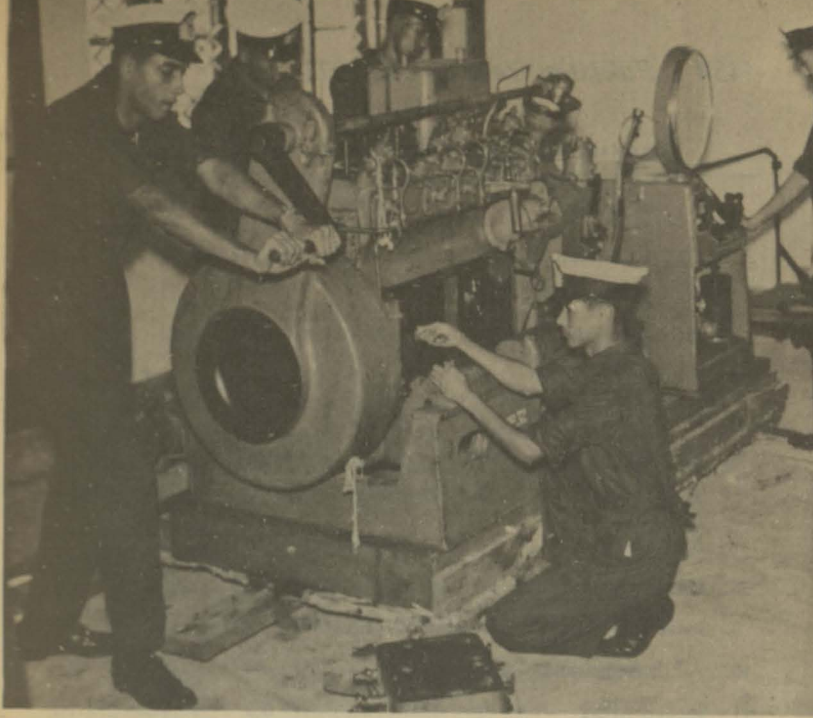
The importance of developing and expanding libraries throughout the country is stressed by the Fourth Plan, particularly in view of the extreme inadequacy of the present provision. "Besides the completion of important on-going projects, such as public libraries at Chittagong, Dacca, Rajshahi, National Libraries at Islamabad and Dacca, and development of the Liaquat Memorial Library at Karachi", the Plan indicates, "it is intended to establish during the Fourth and subsequent Plans a network of rural libraries throughout the country to provide reading facilities to the public in general. Provision of adequates reading materials for the rural libraries will be profitably utilized by adult education centres."

Educational Reform: Conscious of the importance of developing and maintaining high standards of education and of the difficulty of achieving this together with rapid expansion and the acute limitation of resources, the Government of Pakistan in December 1958 set up an Education Commission to review all aspects of education and make recommendations for reforms in the light of national requirements and aspirations.

In December 1964, another Commission was set up on Student Problems and Welfare, under the chairmanship of Justice Hamoodur Rahman with the following terms of references : "(i) to examine the provisions of the University Ordinances and suggest modifications wherever necessary; (ii) to take stock of existing facilities for a sound programme of studies and to suggest remedial measures commensurate with available resources; (iii) to determine the adequacy or otherwise of the recreational and welfare facilities of students and suggest ways and means of providing them within available resources; (iv) to examine any other matter effecting student life."

Presenting its report in 1966, the Commission pointed out that while it was made "painfully aware of a precipitate deterioration in the standards of teaching and examinations", it was not making new recommendations on educational policy, and had confined itself "to ascertaining deficiencies, if any, in physical and teaching facilities and looking into matters which were causing dissatisfaction among students".

The Commission's recommendations, nevertheless, covered the full range of formal education from primary school to the university. While suggesting no new scheme or major expenditure not envisaged in the Third Plan, it laid special stress on the need to improve teaching and teacher training; to carry out an expansion of agricultural and technical/vocational education as quickly as possible with due regard for adequate standards; to improve facilities for the teaching of science, and generally to give greater importance to teaching, laboratory and library facilities than to ostentatious buildings; to proceed cautiously with the adoption of national languages as media of education at the honours and post-graduate level, making sure that facilities for this were adequate and the maintenance of standards assured; to improve student-teacher relations and also remove misunderstanding and



Training at the Marine Academy, Chittagong.

dissatisfaction created by inadequate public relations work on the part of educational institutions and authorities at all levels.

Towards the end of 1968, a Commission on Manpower and Education was established, under the chairmanship of G. Ahmad, to assess national human resources and manpower requirements, and to make recommendations on priorities in educational organization and development to meet these requirements in an optimal and balanced way. (Also see chapters on Manpower and on Development Planning.)

One of the tasks to which Government addressed itself soon after the promulgation of Martial Law in March 1969, was again the reform of the educational system. Within a short time, a number of studies were undertaken, a large cross-section of students, teachers and scholars was consulted, and Proposals for a New Educational Policy were announced on July 3, 1969, followed by the New Education Policy on March 26, 1970, which has been outlined at the outset of this chapter.

TABLE I

Percentage Allocation to Different Sub-Sectors of Education

Sub-Sectors	First Plan*	Second Plan	Third Plan	Fourth Plan**
1. Primary Education	18.0	14.7	13.6	14.6
2. Secondary Education	26.7	16.9	20.8	18.4
3. Teacher Education	6.6	4.7	3.5	4.0
4. Technical Education	8.8	15.6	26.0	25.2
5. College Education	13.1	10.4	8.2	9.9
6. Universities	15.0	12.6	11.7	9.4
7. Scholarships	0.9	10.8	7.1	7.3
8. Madrasah Education	—	—	0.6	0.7
9. Social and Cultural Activities	1.8	3.6	2.3	3.5
10. Adult Education	—	—	—	2.3
11. Special Areas	—	0.5	1.3	1.1
12. Tribal Areas	—	—	—	0.3
13. Preparation of projects, Implementation, Administration and Supervision	—	1.9	1.5	0.3
14. Curriculum Development, Research, Production of Text-books	—	—	2.1	1.5
15. Training in Public Administration	—	—	0.8	—
16. Publicity Scheme	—	1.6	0.4	0.3
17. Establishment Division Scholarships	—	—	0.1	***
18. Scientific and Industrial Research	9.1	6.8	—	—
19. Educational Television	—	—	—	0.4
20. Survey, Statistics and Planning	—	—	—	0.8
TOTAL	100	100	100	100

*Including recurring expenditure. **Proposed.
***Shown under Scholarships

Source : *Fourth Five-Year Plan*, 1970-75, which is also the source of the following six Tables II-VII.

TABLE II

Expenditure Proposed under the Fourth Five-Year Plan, 1970-75

(Million rupees)

Sector	EP	WP	Centre	Total	Percentage
1. Primary Education	405.00	115.00	27.00	547.00	14.6
2. Secondary Education	400.00	253.00	22.00	675.00	18.4
(*a*) Middle Stage	200.00	75.00	12.00	287.00	7.8
(*b*) High Stage	200.00	178.00	10.00	388.00	10.6
3. Teacher Education	100.00	45.00	—	145.00	4 0
4. Technical Education including Engineering Colleges and Universities	630.00	290.00	—	920.00	25.2
5. Colleges (General)	220.00	135.00	10.00	365.00	9.9
6. Universities (General)	170.00	90.00	80.00	340.00	9.4
7. Scholarships	125.00	120.00	(*a*) 16.00 (*b*) 5.00	266.00	7.3
8. Madrasahs	25.00	—	—	25.00	0.7
9. Social and Cultural Activities, including Library Services	50.00	22.00	55.00	127.00	3.5
10. Special Areas	—	25.00 (F.R.)	15.00 (K.A.)	40.00	1.1
11. Tribal Areas	—	—	10.00	10.00	0.3
12. Adult Education	50.00	35.00	—	85.00	2.3
13. Preparation of projects, Implementation, Administration and Supervision	5.00	5.00	—	10.00	0.3
14. Research, Curriculum Dev., production of textbooks	20.00	15.00	20.00	55.00	1.5
15. Educational Television	—	—	15.00	15.00	0.4
16. Surveys, Statistics and Planning	30.00	—	—	30.00	0.8
17. Publicity Schemes	—	—	10.00	10.00	0.3
TOTAL	2,230.00	1,150.00	285.00	3,665.00	100.0

(*a*) Education Division. (*b*) Establishment Division.

TABLE III

Requirements of Recurring Expenditure during Fourth Five-Year Plan 1970-75

(Million rupees)

Sl. No.	Items	EP	WP	Centre	Total
1.	1969-70 Expenditure extended over the 5 years of the Fourth Plan	1,060.00	1,850.00	110.00	3,020.00
2.	Amount required for the Annual increments of the existing staff of educational Institutions	90.00	350.00	5.00	445.00
3.	Amount required for additional staff for the New Programmes and introduction of New Pay Scales	1,170.00	850.00	35.00	2,055.00
	TOTAL	2,320.00	3,050.00	150.00	5,520.00

TABLE IV

Total Expenditure Proposed under the Fourth Five-Year Plan, 1970-75

(Million rupees)

		Developmental Expenditure	Recurring Expenditure	Total
1.	East Pakistan	2,230.00	2,320.00	4,550.00
2.	West Pakistan	1,150.00	3,050.00	4,200.00
3.	Centre	285.00	150.00	435.00
	TOTAL	3,665.00	5,527.00	9,185.00

TABLE V

Rate of Growth in Enrolments in Major Sub-Sectors of Education

	1954/55			1959/60			1964/65			1969/70			1974/75		
Sub-sectors	EP	WP	Total	EP	WP	Total	EP	WP	Total	EP	WP	Total	EP	WP	Total
Primary Stage I-V (millions)	2.729	1.530	4.259	3.277	1.912	5.189	4.159	3.150	7.309	6.300	4.200	10.500	9.100	6.500	15.600
Middle Stage VI—VIII, (millions)	0.33	0.496	0.829	0.276	0.427	0.703	0.514	0.646	1.160	1.040	0.900	1.940	1.540	1.400	2.940
High Stage IX-X (millions)				0.123	0.157	0.280	0.217	0.273	0.490	0.395	0.375	0.770	0.615*	0.590*	1.205
Intermediate Stage (millions)	0.022	0.036	0.058	0.035	0.044	0.079	0.085	0.091	0.176	0.200	0.140	0.340	0.255	0.195	0.450
Degree Stage (millions)				0.013	0.016	0.029	0.030	0.035	0.065	0.058	0.060	0.118	0.078	0.078	0.156
Universities (units)	2,697	2,605	5,302	3,688	5,180	8,868	5,500	8,000	13,500	13,000	17,000	30,000	17,000	21,000	38,000
Engineering and Agriculture Degree (units)	184	1,348	1,832	960	1,408	2,368	1,020	2,807	3,827	2,500	5,800	8,300	4,500	7,800	12,300
Technical Training courses (Diploma level) (units)	483	1,371	1,854	1,001	2,736	3,737	3,470	3.768	7,238	9,000	9,000	18,000	20,000	18,000	38,000

*Including Matric (Tech.) enrolment of 45,000 and 40,000 respectively.

TABLE VI

Statement Showing Growth of Population of Various School Age Groups in Pakistan and Provinces (1970-75)

(*Annual Population increase estimate : 3.1 per cent*)

(Figures in millions)

Age Group		1970			1975			1980			1985		
		EP	WP	P	EP	WP	P	EP	WP	P	EP	WP	P
5—9 Years :													
Boys	..	5.834	4.733	10.567	6.864	5.280	12.144	7.916	5.953	13.869	9.010	6.667	15.677
Girls	..	5.712	4.280	9.992	6.704	4.788	11.492	7.710	5.412	13.122	8.753	6.078	14.831
Both Sexes	..	11.546	9.013	20.559	13.568	10.068	23.636	15.626	11.365	26.991	17.673	12.745	30.508
10—12 Years :													
Boys	..	2.950	2.429	5.379	3.577	2.889	6.466	4.195	3.204	7.399	4.831	3.624	8.455
Girls	..	2.905	2.207	5.112	3.495	2.605	6.100	4.087	2.901	6.988	4.690	3.286	7.976
Both Sexes	..	5.855	4.636	10.491	7.072	5.494	12.566	8.282	6.105	14.387	9.521	6.910	16.431
13—14 Years :													
Boys	..	1.861	1.503	3.364	2.170	1.783	3.953	2.579	2.015	4.594	2.996	2.267	5.263
Girls	..	1.839	1.412	3.251	2.121	1.610	3.731	2.510	1.818	4.328	2.905	2.052	4.957
Both Sexes	..	3.700	2.915	6.615	4.291	3.393	7.684	5.089	3.833	8.922	5.901	4.319	10.220

TABLE VII

Benchmark and Physical Targets for the Fourth Five-Year Plan, 1970/75

	EAST PAKISTAN		WEST PAKISTAN		PAKISTAN	
	Bench-mark for the 4th Plan (1970)	Targets for the 4th Plan (1975)	Bench-mark for the 4th Plan (1970)	Targets for the 4th Plan (1975)	Bench-mark for the 4th Plan (1970)	Targets for the 4th Plan (1975)
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Primary Education						
(I-V)						
(*i*) No. of Primary Schools	29,440	34,440	40,600	63,000	70,040	97,440
(*ii*) Improvement of Primary School	11,421	21,821	9,350	24,300	20,771	46,421
(*iii*) Enrolment at Primary Stage (millions)	6.300	9.100	4.200	6.500	10.500	15.600
(*iv*) Enrolment as percentage of age group	55	67	46	65	50.5	66
(*v*) No. of Primary Teachers Training Institutes	48	100	53	70	101	170
(*vi*) Annual output of Primary School Teachers	7,000	20,000	10,000	15,000	14,000	35,000
Secondary Education						
Middle Junior (VI-VIII)						
(*i*) No. of Middle/Junior High Schools	1,780	2,000	3,300	5,300	5,080	7,300
(*ii*) Enrolment at Middle/Junior Stage (millions)	1.040	1.540	0.900	1.400	1.940	2.940
High (IX-X)						
(*i*) No. of High School	3,420	3,970	1,900	2,400	5,320	6,370
(*ii*) Enrolment at High Schools (million)	0.395	0.570	0.375	0.550	0.770	1.120
(*iii*) No. of Training Institutions for Secondary School Teachers	13	19	14	18	27	37
(*iv*) No. of Education Extension Centres	1	3	4	5	5	8
(*v*) Annual output of Secondary School Teachers	1,700	4,000	3,100	4,500	4,800	8,500
Intermediate (XI-XII)						
(*i*) No. of Intermediate Colleges	150	175	145	175	295	350
(*ii*) Enrolment at Intermediate Stage (millions)	0.200	0.255	0.140	0.195	0.340	0.450

TABLE VII

Benchmark and Physical Targets for the Fourth Five-Year Plan, 1970-75 *(Contd.)*

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Technical Education						
(*i*) No. of Vocational Institutes/Technical High Schools (IX-X)	35	180	40	100	75	280
(*ii*) Enrolment of Matric Tech.	4,000	45,000	5,000	40,000	9,000	85,000
(*iii*) Annual Admission capacity at Matric Tech. level	2,680	25,000	5,000	22,000	7,680	47,000
(*iv*) Annual output of Matric Tech.	400	15,000	4,750	15,000	5,150	30,000
(*v*) No. of Polytechnics/ Technical Colleges (XI-XIII)	22	25	19	25	41	50
(*vi*) Admission capacity to technician courses/Intermediate Tech. in Polytechnics/ Technical Colleges	3,900	8,000	3,500	7,000	7,400	15,000
(*vii*) Enrolment in Polytechnics/Technical Colleges	9,000	20,000	9,000	18,000	18,000	38,000
(*viii*) Annual output of Diploma level technicians/Inter Tech.	1,300	4,000	2,500	4,000	3,800	8,000
Higher Education						
Engineering and Agriculture						
(*i*) No. of Engineering and Agricultural Universities	4	5	5	6	9	11
(*ii*) Admission capacity*	780	1,500	1,500	1,800	2,280	3,300
(*iii*) Annual output of Graduates**	480	650	873	1,100	1,353	1,650
Degree Colleges (General)						
(*i*) No. of Degree Colleges	136	152	135	150	271	302
(*ii*) Enrolment of Degree Stage	58,000	78,000	60,000	78,000	118,000	156,000
Universities (General)						
(*i*) No. of General Universities ***	3	6	5	7	8	13
(*ii*) Enrolment at University level	13,000	17,000	17,000	21,000	30,000	38,000

*Including Pak-Swedish Institutes and three mono-technics.

**Does not include engineering enrolments and outputs from other Universities.

***Including Central Universities.

TABLE VIII

A. Number of Educational Institutions (Estimated)

Type of Institutions	Total		East Pakistan		West Pakistan	
	1968/69	1969/70	1968/69	1969/70	1968/69	1969/70
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Primary Schools	66,900	69,000	28,700	29,000	38,200	40,000
Middle Schools	5,200	5,530	1,860	2,000	3,340	3,530
High Schools	5,310	5,630	3,540	3,900	2,010	2,130
Secondary (Vocational) Institutions	368	390	206	218	162	172
Special Schools[1]	73	73	51	51	22	22
Other School[2]	5,140	5,150	4,480	4,480	660	665
Arts and Science Colleges	585	665	269	320	316	345
Professional Colleges	77	77	29	29	48	38
Agriculture[3]	5	5	1	1	4	4
Commerce	8	8	2	2	6	6
Engineering	6	6	1	1	5	5
Fine Arts	2	2	1	1	1	1
Home Economics	4	4	1	1	3	3
Law	14	14	7	7	7	7
Medicine[4]	13	13	6	6	7	7
Tibbia	4	4	1	1	3	3
Social Work	1	1	1	1	—	—
Teacher Training[5]	18	18	7	7	11	11
Physical Education	2	2	1	1	1	1
Universities :	12	12	5	5	7	7
General	8	8	3	3	5	5
Agriculture	2	2	1	1	1	1
Engineering	2	2	1	1	1	1

[1] For Physically handicapped, borstals, reformatories, orphanages.
[2] *Maktabs, madrasahs, pathshalas* and others.
[3] Includes Animal Husbandry, Veterinary Science and Forestry.
[4] Includes Colleges of Dentistry.
[5] Includes University Institutes and Faculties of Education.

Source : *Pakistan Education Index, 1970.*

TABLE VIII

B. Enrolments in Educational Institutions (Estimated)

Type of Stage	Total		East Pakistan		West Pakistan	
	1968/69	1969/70	1968/69	1969/70	1968/69	1969/70
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Primary Stage (I-V)	9,300,000	10,500,000	5,500,000	6,300,000	3,800,000	4,200,000
Middle Stage (VI-VIII)	1,700,000	1,950,000	850,000	1,050,000	850,000	900,000
High School Stage (IX-X)	700,000	780,000	350,000	400,000	350000	380,000
Intermediate Stage (XI-XII)	285,000	350,000	150,000	200,000	135,000	150,000
Degree Stage	108,000	125,000	53,000	65,000	55,000	60,000
Post-Graduate Stage	12,800	13,500	4,800	5,000	8,000	8,500
Secondary (Vocational)	44,600	48,600	18,600	20,600	26,000	28,000
Special Schools[1]	5,900	6,100	4,900	5,000	1,000	1,100
Other Schools[2]	590,000	600,000	542,000	550,000	48,000	50,000
Professional Colleges	30,970	33,370	8,515	9,330	22,455	24,040
Agriculture	1,640	1,750	240	250	1,400	1,500
Commerce	4,800	5,300	1,400	1,600	3,400	3,700
Engineering	3,675	3,800	275	300	3,400	3,500
Fine Arts	455	480	170	180	285	300
Home Economics	1,440	1,500	190	200	1,250	1,300
Law	5,850	6,000	2,100	2,200	3,750	3,800
Medicine	8,300	9,300	2,500	2,800	5,800	6,500
Tibbia	285	300	45	50	240	250
Social Work	125	150	125	150	—	—
Teacher Training[3]	4,050	4,400	1,300	1,400	2,750	3,000
Physical Education	350	390	170	200	180	190
Agriculture Universities	2,810	3,450	1,160	1,450	1,650	2,000
Engineering Universities	3,775	4,800	1,675	2,250	2,100	2,550

[1]For physically handicapped, borstals, reformatories, oaphanages.

[2]*Maktabs, madrasahs, pathshalas* and others. [3]Includes enrolments in Institutes and Faculties of Education.

Source : *Pakistan Education Index, 1970.* Estimates here, it will be noticed, are slightly different from those of the Fourth Plan.

TABLE IX

Teaching Staff at Educational Institutions, 1968/69

Type of Institution	*No. of Teachers*
Primary Schools	190,880
Untrained	43,623
Secondary Schools	110,204
Untrained	40,109
Middle/Jr. High	37,628
Untrained	11,403
High	72,576
Untrained	28,706
Secondary Vocational Schools	1,700
General Arts & Science Colleges	11,390
Professional Colleges	1,734
Medicine	707
Teacher Training Institutes	1,740
Universities (all types)	2,378
Other General Schools	14,186

Source : *Educational Statistics, 1968/69.*

TABLE X

Output of Matriculates, Intermediates and Higher Education Graduates

	Pakistan			East Pakistan			West Pakistan		
	1960	1965	1969*	1960	1965	1969	1960	1965	1969*
Matriculates (SSC)	80,600	1,34,300	2,17,000	25,100	50,400	1,05,000	55,500	83,900	1,12,000
Female	8,300	18,500	35,000	1,600	4,500	11,000	6,700	14,000	24,000
Intermediates (Arts, Sc., Com.)	21,061	49,022	1,09,100	6,495	17,730	41,700	14,566	31,292	67,400
Female	2,972	7,464	18,400	475	1,777	5,000	2,497	5,687	13,400
Graduates (Arts, Sc., Com.)	9,968	22,297	34,900	3,179	7,185	13,000	6,789	15,112	21,900
Female	1,254	3,438	5,875	167	601	1,175	1,087	2,837	4,700
Post graduates (Arts, Sc., Com.)	2,003	5,854	9,100	744	1,620	2,400	1,259	4,234	6,700
Female	291	1,227	2,300	64	212	400	227	1,015	1,900
Agr. Graduates[1]	327	425	592(a)	55	144	105(a)	272	281	487(a)
Engg. Graduates	426	593	1,017(a)	111	237	217(a)	315	365	800(a)
Medical Graduates[2]	749	1,082	925(a)	190	346	281(a)	559	736	644(a)

[1]Includes Animal Husbandry, Vet. Sc. and Forestry. [2]Includes graduates in Pharmacy and Dentistry. *Data for 1969 estimated.
(a) Data for 1967.
Source : *Pakistan Education Index, 1970.*

Scientific Research

ALTHOUGH the Second Plan, 1960-65, contained a separate chapter on 'Scientific Research and Statistics', the Fourth Plan, 1970-75, has for the first time devoted a consolidated chapter to 'Scientific and Technological Research', outlining objectives, strategy, policy, and sectoral allocations—and stressing that the "time has now come when Pakistan will have to lay greater stress on scientific research than ever before, if it is to establish a place for itself in the comity of developed nations." But while the comprehensive and co-ordinated policy the Plan outlines—with special emphasis on applied research—is impressive, the public sector financial allocation of Rs. 752.9 million for scientific research amounts to less than 1.6 per cent of the total outlay in the public sector, and its annual average over five years to about 0.2 per cent of GNP at market prices in 1969/70. This situation gives added emphasis to the need for a significant contribution from the private sector, which the Fourth Plan underlines : "In financing a national programme for scientific research", the Plan observes, "the public sector alone cannot and should not play the entire role. The bulk of the benefits of applied industrial research will be reaped by industry in the private sector, which should contribute a sizeable share towards the total expenditure on industrial research and development. The private sector will, therefore, need to play a more prominent role in contributing towards research and development programmes during the Fourth Plan." Other Plan objectives and policies are given below under Science Policy and other relevant sections, following a review of major developments since Independence. (For break-down of science allocations see Table I).

When Pakistan came into existence in 1947 there was virtually no organized scientific research. The bulk of industrial, commercial, educational and financial facilities fell to the lot of India. There were only three

universities, two in West Pakistan and one in East Pakistan, with a total enrolment of 2,264 students out of the country's population of 65 million at that time. The Irrigation Research and Industrial Research Laboratories at Lahore and some stations of the Meteorological Department were the only scientific research institutions that Pakistan inherited.

Realizing that Pakistan's economy is dependent upon the two major crops of cotton and jute, the Central Ministry of Agriculture established the Central Cotton and Jute Committees, as semi-autonomous bodies in 1948 and 1950, respectively. The Food and Agricultural Research Council was set up in 1949. In 1951 the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research was created under the aegis of the Ministry of Industries. It was assigned the task of formulating proposals for the establishment of a scientific and industrial research organization in the country. In 1953 the Council of Scientific and Industrial Research was established under the Societies Act of 1860, with its own Governing Body, rules, regulations and by-laws. The same is true of the Medical Research Council, also set up in 1953, and the Atomic Energy Commission, established (initially as a Council) in 1958. Except for the Cotton Committee which finances most of its research activities by a cess on cotton production, the Jute Committee, as well as other Research Councils, are almost entirely financed by the Central Government.

In 1959, the President of Pakistan appointed a Scientific Commission to look into the problems of scientific research in the country. The report was published in 1960 after protracted deliberations. In pursuance of its recommendations, the Government established the National Science Council to co-ordinate the activities of the various Research Councils and to advise the Government on the over-all development of scientific research. Further, a separate Ministerial Division of Scientific and Technological Research was created which, for administrative purposes and budgetary clearance, provides a ministerial base for the autonomous organizations of the Atomic Energy Commission, the Council of Scientific and Industrial Research, and the National Science Council.

The Government is the biggest single employer of scientists and technologists in the country. Since 1947, the scientific staff employed by the Government and other autonomous organizations has grown from a few chemists, physicians, geologists and engineers to 9,819 men and women with graduate, post-graduate, or equivalent qualifications (6,534 scientists and 3,285 engineers). For all the progress recorded, however, Pakistan is still woefully short of scientific and technical manpower.

Brief Review of the Organization of Scientific Research : Generally speaking, scientific research in Pakistan is conducted :

(i) in laboratories set up by the Research Councils and by the Departments of the Provincial and Central Government, and

(ii) in university laboratories.

Whereas in developed countries extensive research is carried out by private industry (in 1960/61 industry accounted for 75 per cent of national research and development (R & D) performance in U.S.A.), in Pakistan it plays

virtually no part. Nearly all of it is wholly financed by the Government. In 1965/66 the Research Councils accounted for 50 per cent, the Government Department laboratories 45 per cent, and the universities 5 per cent of the national R & D effort.

Between 1963/64 and 1966/67 the total amount spent on scientific and technological research increased by only 8.4 per cent from Rs. 71 million to Rs. 77 million.

According to the Fourth Plan allocation for scientific research, annual development expenditure in this sector would amount to about Rs. 150.6 million, nearly doubling the outlay of 1966/67.

Science Policy: The development of policies for scientific research is based on a set of factors which collectively require that an examination of the situation be made and subsequent action be taken. These factors include such considerations as national health, welfare and security, advancement of science, size of a programme both in terms of rupee and foreign exchange components, allocation of resources, scientific and technical personnel, urgency and prestige.

The first comprehensive effort to establish an over-all policy in relation to these factors was made by the 14-member Scientific Commission appointed in 1960 with the following terms of reference:

(i) To consider how best scientific research can be promoted and integrated.

(ii) To consider ways and means for providing adequate facilities to the various research organizations of the country and ensuring the utilization of results of their researches for the over-all development of the country.

(iii) To consider ways and means of making the scientific career attractive and comparable in future proposals, in respect of emoluments and status, to other services of equal national importance.

Basic broad recommendations made by this Commission included the following:

1. Government should patronize science as in the best days of the Islamic Empire and assume responsibility for promoting scientific research.

2. Top-most priority should be given to strengthening scientific efforts in the universities, and to this end, the Central Government should assume greater responsibility than in the past.

3. Universities should primarily undertake scientific researches of a fundamental character, leaving applied research to the Government-sponsored Research Councils. There should be a system of mutual exchange of personnel between universities and the Research Councils.

4. The first task for science is to solve the food problem. For this, extension and intensification of agriculture are not enough. Researches must be conducted on the utilization of plant materials and the possibilities of improvements in the nutritional values of food crops.

5. In the field of irrigation, problems connected with water-logging,

sub-soil structures, soil mechanics, water-flow rate, desilting, dredging and bed-lining of canals require intensive research.

6. Desilting of sea water and conservation of sub-soil water resources for the irrigation of arid zones of West Pakistan present problems which can only be solved by undertaking an active programme of research.

7. A prerequisite for the development of agriculture, irrigation, industry and communications is cheap electric power. Within the next 30 years the per capita consumption of electricity should be raised from 30 units to 400 units, which is only 50 per cent of the present per capita consumption of Japan. All resources to generate electricity must be tapped, including nuclear power, wherever economically feasible.

8. Upgrading of mineral ores and different aspects of fibre technology and the uses of indigenous raw materials offer great possibilities for scientific and industrial researches.

9. In the sector of public health, problems connected with (i) eradication of epidemics and control of preventable diseases, (ii) investigation of tropical diseases peculiar to Pakistan, (iii) family planning and birth control, and (iv) nutrition have to be tackled in specialized institutions.

10. It is extremely important for the interpretation and guidance of national policies to have a separate institution where researches on modern statistical methods of sampling may be undertaken. A separate institute should be established and attached to a university.

11. Researches in Defence Science should be entrusted to an independent organization under the Minister of Defence, headed by a Scientific Adviser.

12. For co-ordination and integration of the scientific effort in the country, a National Science Council should be established, which would have advisory and co-ordinating functions.

13. To overcome the shortage of scientific and technical manpower a massive training programme should be launched, and the National Science Council entrusted with the responsibility of co-ordinating the requirements of the various Research Councils and with the implementation of the training programme.

14. The question of creating a separate cadre of a Pakistan Science Service (PSS) for employment in Government Departments should be examined . . . and apart from pay, other privileges and status should be accorded to scientists, which would attract talented young men towards a scientific career.

Five years later, a joint meeting of the Pakistan Academy of Sciences and the National Science Council (see below for notes on these bodies) was held in August 1965 at Saidu Sharif, Swat, to review and discuss the organization and development of research in the country. The President of Pakistan attended a session of this meeting ; and besides members of the organizing bodies and a number of other scientists from both zones of the country, the Secretaries of Ministries connected with different Research Councils were also present. This Meeting made the following recommendations on policy

for scientific research, some of which, it will be noted, reiterated recommendations of the Scientific Commission.

1. A developing country like Pakistan should spend at least 2 per cent of its National Gross Product on its scientific endeavour, in order to attain a reasonable pace of development and progress.

2. Among possible areas of research, the following are of special priority, and scientific research in these areas may be expected to make an early impact on the country's economy.

(i) Industry based on indigenous raw materials.
(ii) Food and Agriculture, including Food Technology.
(iii) Irrigation, Hydrology and Soil Science.
(iv) Medicine, Public Health and Hygiene.
(v) Promotion of Science in Universities.

3. The establishment of a strong Technical Information Service should be given high priority. The functions of this Service will be to collect scientific and technological data from all over the world in order to make them available to the various scientific research organizations in the country.

4. Scientists should be associated with economic planning, and it is essential that the Chairmen of various Research Councils and other specialists should be co-opted to the Planning Commission for technical advice.

5. In order that the scientific effort of the country may have the fullest possible impact on its economic development it is essential that results of scientific research in the field of Industry, Agriculture, Health, Communications etc., should be fully utilized, and that these results should be taken from the laboratories and experimental farms to the factories and fields, and from these to the consumers.

6. Measures for enforcing standardization and quality control should be adopted, and legislative as well as executive action should be taken for this purpose.

7. The decision made some time back, that an Industrial Cess should be levied which should defray the cost of scientific research and services for industrial production, should be put into effect at the earliest possible opportunity.

8. For setting up pilot plants for the commercial exploitation of scientific processes, a provision of Rs. 10 million in foreign exchange should be made in the Industrial Investment Schedule. This amount may be utilized to cover the import of equipment required for the development and exploitation of the processes.

9. It is necessary to evaluate the efforts so far made in training scientific manpower. Every possible effort should be made to train research workers at the highest level in the country itself. The Inter-University Board, in collaboration with the National Science Council, should work out a plan for assigning particular branches of knowledge to various universities for specialized higher post-graduate work.

10. For the proper and continued growth of training and research in science, it is essential to establish and develop an industry for manufac-

turing scientific apparatus and equipment. For this purpose a beginning should be made immediately with the apparatus required for schools and colleges.

11. In order to obtain well-trained manpower and retain it, the remuneration and amenities offered to scientists must be commensurate with the efforts made to attain the required standard in training and experience. It is suggested that the work of scientists should be evaluated periodically, and good work should be suitably rewarded.

12. The National Science Council should be given sufficient funds for awarding short-term fellowships and grants for participation in international scientific meeting and seminars.

13. In the case of those university teachers who have the aptitude, inclination and devotion for research, a part of their time—which may be as much as 50 per cent—should be allowed for research work, and their teaching and administrative load should be proportionately reduced.

14. Special grants should be made to the universities by the Central Government and the Research Councils for undertaking research on approved projects in those subjects in which basic facilities are available in the universities.

15. A sufficient number of students with outstanding academic records should be selected every year, and should be given suitable fellowships in order to train them in research methodology and in work connected with important research projects.

16. For the promotion of advanced studies and research in the universities, it is necessary that they should have a certain amount of flexibility in the matter of different cadres, such as professors and readers, in order to be able to acquire the services of the best available specialists.

17. There should be the closest possible collaboration and co-operation between the universities and Research Councils, and all necessary measures should be adopted for this purpose.

18. For ensuring the success of applied research, it is most essential that there should be a close association between research groups, all the way from the laboratory bench-work to pilot-plant investigations and to full-scale commercial exploitation.

19. The feasibility of establishing a Scientific Service of Pakistan should be investigated, and a detailed report should be presented at the next meeting of scientists.

20. Eminent scientists who have retired from regular service and are still active scientifically should be provided with the necessary facilities for continuing their research work in the universities or other research institutions.

At a Symposium on *Science Policy—Planning of Scientific Effort in Pakistan*, held as part of the All-Pakistan Science Conference at Dacca in March 1968, attention was again drawn to the Swat Meeting's recommendation (4) on science and economic planning. It was suggested that the Government consider the creation of a strong in-built division or cell of scientific policy in the Planning Commission, as essential for the proper

development of scientific research and training on a nation-wide scale and in co-ordination with the research problems and needs of development objectives and projects.

Fourth Plan Objectives and Policy : Recommending the establishment of a Scientific Information Centre capable of disseminating the results of researches contained in the vast pool of declassified scientific knowledge that has accumulated in developed countries—so that these may be adopted or adapted to suit conditions prevailing in Pakistan, and thus avoid unnecessary duplication of research efforts on problems that have already been solved—the Plan goes on to propose that all research in the Plan period should be conducted in the light of "an over-all national science policy with the following aims and objectives :

(i) Careful selection of problems facing the country in each sector, whose solution will have a significant impact on the economic development of the country.

(ii) Establishment of first-rate scientific institutions where researches can be done on selected problems of national importance, and strengthening of existing institutions.

(iii) Remoulding of scientific education at all levels from the school to the university.

(iv) Training of top research personnel and scientific staff required to man research institutions.

(v) Organization of bodies which may be entrusted with the responsibility of directing a well-defined programme of research and a scientific establishment placed under their charge.

(vi) Institutional arrangements for the utilization and exploitation of proven processes should be improved."

In pursuing these objectives, programmes of both basic and applied research are to be carefully drawn up, but a major part of the total research programme is to be directed towards applied research, which should "lead to the development and production of useful materials and devices, methods and process in agriculture, industry, medicine, and other allied fields." *

In this programme development and implementation, it is proposed that adequate contact and co-ordination between all types of research institutions should ensure the fullest utilization of available research facilities and avoid all unnecessary duplication. Such collaboration is, on the one hand, also to extend to relevant industrial agricultural and medical establishments in both public and private sectors, and, on the other, involve scientists in Government and other research agencies in the activities of educational and technological institutions.

These objectives of expanded and more closely co-ordinated research are seen as involving certain changes in the organizational set-up of the various research bodies functioning in the country, which "will have to ensure that :

(i) research and development promotes a fuller utilization of indi-

genous materials and stimulates competitive efficiency of production;

(ii) the instruments, equipment and accessories required for research and industrial purposes can be manufactured within the country as rapidly as possible;

(iii) complete co-ordination is established between various research organizations, so that duplication in research work is avoided and the work of different Institutes, Centres/Stations is supplementary or complementary to one another and not overlapping.

(iv) scientific research becomes sufficiently attractive to men of talent and ability by providing these professional men with salaries and status in society according to the importance of the work they undertake."

Finally, proposing the constitution of an autonomous body at the national level for the following purposes, the Plan suggests that this should in fact be the National Science Council, reconstituted to give it a more representative character.

"(a) Co-ordination of scientific research and development activities of various institutions of the country, particularly the universities, the specialized autonomous research institutions and the scientific departments and agencies of the Central and Provincial Governments;

(b) Framing the national science policy, fixing intersectoral priorities, reviewing the results of research and advising the various Ministries of the Central Government and Provincial Departments connected with R&D in the country.

(c) Maintaining international liaison with learned bodies and academies and with specialized agencies of the United Nations concerned with scientific education and research.

(d) Establishment of a chain of scientific information centres and libraries throughout the country for dissemination of knowledge and provision of reference material for scientific workers and institutions engaged in research and development activities.

(e) Establishment of a scientific bureau of translation with branches in East and West Pakistan, which could undertake and authenticate the translation of all important scientific books of reference and modern literature in the national and regional languages of Pakistan.

(f) Compilation of standard internationally accepted scientific terms, numerals, notations and symbols to be adopted in the books and literature on scientific subjects dealt with in the national and regional languages.

(g) Compiling and maintaining an up-to-date record of the scientific manpower of the country.

(h) Taking such steps as are necessary for and conductive to the promotion of scientific research and development in the country.

(i) Taking suitable measures for bringing back Pakistani scientists working abroad by creating suitable positions for them within the country.

(j) Sponsoring and encouraging the setting up of national museums of science and technology in conjunction with various Research Councils."

Proposed as two further corollaries to these functions and arrangements are (i) strengthening institutional arrangements for the efficient commercial exploitation of the results of research—particularly in the industrial field—without undue delays, and (ii) creating a special fund, in co-operation with universities carrying out research, in order to finance the temporary employment of all Pakistani scientists with Ph.D. degrees on their return from studies abroad until they secure permanent employment with universities, the Government or in the private sector.

National Science Council : As proposed by the Science Commission, the main body that advises the Government on its general science policy is the National Science Council, which is also responsible for co-ordinating the activities of the following Research Councils:

(1) The Pakistan Council of Scientific and Industrial Research (PCSIR)
(2) The Pakistan Atomic Energy Commission (PAEC)
(3) The Pakistan Agricultural Research Council.
(4) The Pakistan Council for Irrigation, Drainage and Flood Control Research.
(5) The Pakistan Medical Research Council.
(6) The Pakistan Council of Works and Housing Research.

The objects and functions of the National Science Council are :

(i) To co-ordinate the plans, programmes and schemes of scientific research prepared by the various Research Councils.
(ii) To assess and evaluate the results of research conducted by the Research Councils, and to recommend, where necessary, measures for the utilization of these results.
(iii) To advise the Central Government on matters connected with the development of scientific research, including any particular issue referred to it by the Government.

The Council consists of all the Chairmen of Research Councils, the Chief Scientific Adviser to the President, the Chief Scientist of the Ministry of Defence, two scientists nominated by the Inter-University Board, four scientists nominated by the President, and one member each from the six Ministerial Divisions concerned. The President of Pakistan is the Patron of the Council, and he nominates the Chairman of the Council from amongst the Chairmen of the Research Councils in rotation.

In addition to its advisory functions—which in the past have promoted the implementation of various recommendations of the Scientific Commission, including the establishment of the Research Councils—the Council provides a national forum for the discussion of scientific problems and policies; and this has, in more than one instance, led to further co-ordinative action by different organizations. Thus one of its meetings in 1963 concluded that it would be useful if the Chairmen of the six Research Councils could meet periodically; since then numerous meetings of this type have been held to

mutual advantage. It was in one such meeting that the groundwork for conducting a study on protein nutrition and deficiency in Pakistan was laid and the Council subsequently set up a Committee for the study.

Protein Committee Report: The report of this study, entitled *The Protein Problem of Pakistan*, was published by the Council in July 1968. This valuable report stresses that protein deficiency is a major nutritional problem in Pakistan : "That the present trends indicate that the protein gap would continue to increase at a rapid rate unless well-planned and strenuous measures are instituted to remedy the situation." "That the current protein crisis is due mainly to an inadequate appreciation of the extent and gravity of the nutritional problems and lack of comprehension of the relationship of better health and nutrition to productivity and economic growth." The report has made specific proposals which it feels would help to solve the problem, and has submitted them to the Government.

Group Meetings : Apart from the meetings of the Chairmen, the Council also organizes other high-level group discussions on scientific questions, including the joint meetings of the Standing Committee of Vice-Chancellors and the Chairmen of the Research Councils. Encompassing a comprehensive field of science education and training, as well as the full range of fundamental and applied scientific research, such a group is also able to explore practical possibilities of collaboration between universities and Research Councils. For further promotion of such collaboration, a National Consultative Committee, comprising the Vice-Chancellors and the Chairmen of Research Councils, has been constituted to facilitate bilateral agreements between the Research Councils and the universities. Furthermore, a Standing Committee has been created to review the research activities of the Councils.

For specific areas of research and development, such as atomic energy, medicine, agriculture, etc., the Council, from time to time, constitutes specialized Standing Committees, which after due deliberation on programmes in their particular field, recommend measures for the initiation, co-ordination, communication and utilization of the research involved.

Publications : Among periodical reports issued by the Council are a *Directory of Current Scientific Projects in Pakistan, 1966-67*, issued in 1968; a list of posts for *Scientists, Technologists and Technicians* (March 1969); a list of posts for *Scientists and Engineers* (November 1968), and *Expenditure on Research and Development in Pakistan* (November 1968).

The Directory indicates that in 1966/67 some 3,000 research projects were being carried out in a total of 86 different research organizations and departments.

Other Central Co-ordinating and Advisory Bodies : However, the National Science Council is by no means the only decision-making institution for science in the country. The central co-ordinating body is the Scientific and

Technological Research Division of the Ministry of Education and Scientific Research (until quite recently this Division had formerly been attached to the President's Office). This body forms a link between the National Science Council and the Government. In addition, the Pakistan Academy of Sciences, with a membership of some 30 leading scientists, makes its advice on scientific affairs available to the Government from time to time.

Furthermore, the Chief Scientific Adviser to the President, a post created in 1961 by Presidential Order, provides the President with advice and assistance concerning all matters of scientific policy and general scientific trends in the country, both in civilian and defence research. The position of the Chief Scientific Adviser is not statutory, and the incumbent, as a member of the President's Secretariat, is not required to report to the National Assembly.

The National Science Council, the Scientific and Technological Research Division and the Chief Scientific Adviser to the President are thus the main advisory bodies in the country who recommend or formulate a national science policy in general terms.

Ministerial Division of Scientific and Technological Research: The functions of the Division are as follows :

(a) Co-ordination of applied research in the scientific and technological field, including security of development projects and co-ordination of development programmes in this field.

(b) Promotion of applied research and utilization of results of research in scientific and technological fields carried out at home and abroad.

(c) Guidance to research institutions at the Centre as well as in the Provinces in the field of applied scientific and technological research.

(d) Co-ordination in the utilization of manpower for scientific and technological research.

The Division has budgetary authority for and co-ordinates the activities of the Atomic Energy Commission, the Council of Scientific and Industrial Research and the National Science Council. Other Research Councils, however, operate under their respective Ministries.

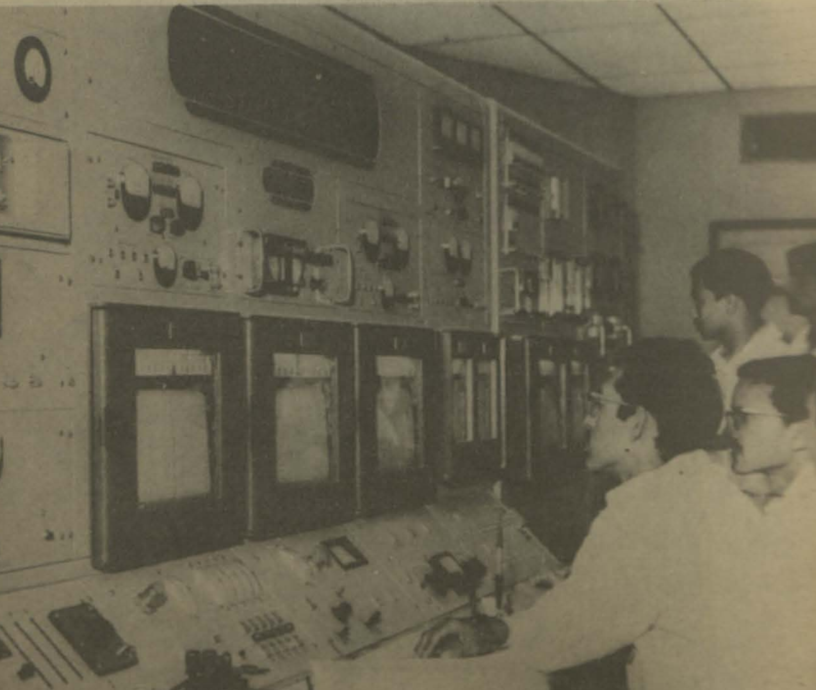
Departmental Research : Of the scientific departments of the Government, the Meteorological Department has been expanded and has well-equipped laboratories and observatories all over the country. It also runs an Institute of Geophysics at Quetta. The Provincial Governments have organized a Forest Research Institute at Peshawar in West Pakistan and a Forest Research Laboratory at Chittagong in East Pakistan. Similarly, researches on animal husbandry are carried out at two Animal Husbandry Research Institutes at Peshawar and Comilla. The Geological Survey of Pakistan (GSP) has been re-organized, and it has established its laboratories at Quetta. Central Testing Laboratories are operating at Karachi, Dacca and Lahore. The National Health Laboratories, situated at the National

Health Centre in Islamabad, undertake medical research in relation to the eradication of communicable diseases, the improvement of the nation's health, family planning for population control, checks on the quality of medicaments and assistance for major health programmes. Besides these, there are a number of special research establishments set up by the Provincial and Central Governments which are carrying out useful scientific investigations in various clearly defined fields. A list of these establishments with their budgetary allocations is given in Tables IV to VI.

R & D Effort : An abstract (Table II) concerning national expenditure on R & D shows that the maximum R & D effort, of Rs. 80 million, was in 1964/65, and this represented 0.17 per cent of the GNP. Compared to advanced countries (U.S.A. 3 per cent and U.K. 25 per cent) this figure is very low. Consequently, the 1965 Scientists Meeting made it clear in their very first recommendation that at least 2 per cent of Pakistan's GNP should be spent on the nation's total scientific effort.

The Research Councils : There are at present six Research Councils which are engaged in scientific research. They are autonomous bodies under the control of the Central Government: and, apart from a working liaison, there is no administrative affiliation between them and the scientific institutions of Government Departments. Progress has been recorded by each in

Control room of nuclear reactor at Pakistan Institute of Nuclear Science and Technology, Islamabad.



its respective field of enquiry. (Also see chapters on subjects dealt with by these Councils).

Pakistan Atomic Energy Commission : The Commission was first established as a semi-Government body in September 1958, following an earlier Government decision in January 1955 to set up an institute for the development of atomic energy in Pakistan for the furtherance of the UN 'Atoms for Peace' Programme. The Commission which served as the Secretariat of the Council subsequently assumed its autonomous status in May 1959. Then according to the Pakistan Atomic Energy Commission (PAEC) Ordinance of May 1965, AEC became a statutory body. Its Governing body consists of four full-time members—including the Chairman, a Finance member from the Ministry of Finance and two technical members—and four part-time members, comprising two leading scientists of the country, one each from its two wings, a scientist in service with the Government or an institution sponsored by it, and the Chief Scientific Adviser to the President, *ex-officio*.

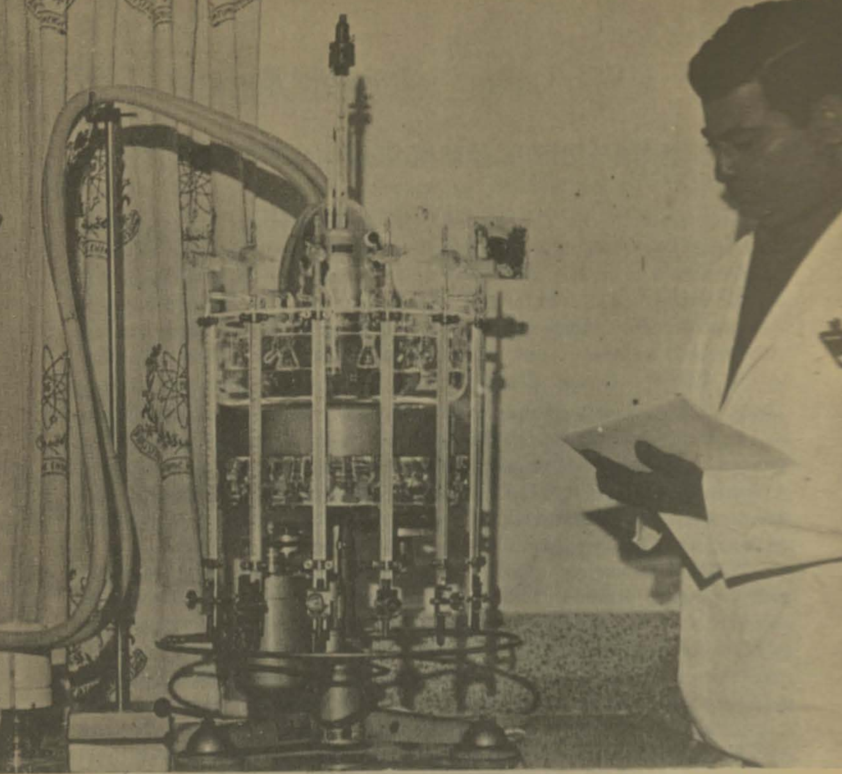
The Commission, which currently employs some 440 scientists and engineers, provides facilities for research work in the promotion of peaceful uses of atomic energy in the field of agriculture (including irradiation of seeds for better and disease-resistant crops and measures for pest control) medicine and industry, and the execution of development projects involving nuclear power stations and the generation of electric power in them. Recently, it has been assigned the task of exploiting solar energy, and a commercial desalination plant involving solar energy is under way in Gwadur. The overall programme of research and development of the Commission has been drawn up with the aim of laying a sound scientific and technological base for:

(a) the growing nuclear power programme of Pakistan,
(b) development of uses of radio-isotopes and nuclear radiation sources in industry, agriculture and medicine, and
(c) research in certain basic aspects of natural sciences and engineering.

The research establishments of the PAEC consist of

(1) The Pakistan Institute of Nuclear Science and Technology (PINSTECH), Islamabad.
(2) The Atomic Energy Centre, Lahore.
(3) The Atomic Energy Centre, Dacca.
(4) The Atomic Energy Agricultural Research Centre, Tandojam.
(5) The Atomic Energy Agricultural Research Centre, Dacca.
(6) Medical Radio-isotope Centres at Karachi, Lahore, Dacca and Jamshoro.

Development projects include the 132-megawatt nuclear power reactor being built at Karachi, which is to be completed in the near future, and the solar energy desalination plant at Gwadur. The nuclear power requirements of the country, which will soon outstrip all possibilities of being met from conventional power resources of hydro-electric dams, coal and oil. Another at Rooppur, in East Pakistan, has been provided for in the Fourth Plan. A glimpse of future power needs may also be gained by com-



An agricultural radiation experiment under way at the Tandojam Agricultural Research Centre of the Pakistan Atomic Energy Commission.

paring the present per capita power consumption of 50 units in Pakistan with 1,800 units in Japan and 500 in Canada. (Also see section on Power in the chapter on Water and Power.)

The Commission makes grants to universities for special investigations and awards research fellowships and post-graduate studentships for training in nuclear sciences. It also loans radio-isotopes and other nuclear materials to universities for research purposes.

Pakistan Council of Scientific and Industrial Research: The Council was created as an autonomous body in 1953, with the broad objective of initiating, promoting and guiding researches in pure and applied fields relating to the industrial utilization of the raw material resources of the country. The Governing Body of the Council consists of the Chairman and six other honorary members, including some leading scientists. The Council itself, to which the Governing Body is responsible, consists of 20 members, including representatives of the Central and Provincial Governments, eminent scientists, industrialists and educationists. The term of office of the members of the Governing Body as well as of the Council is three years.

The policies of the PCSIR, on recommendations of the Scientific

Commission, have weighed quite heavily in the direction of applied research. This is reflected in the over-all organizational pattern of four multifunctional laboratories located at Karachi, Dacca, Lahore and Peshawar, which together comprise 21 research divisions. Besides these well-established centres of scientific and industrial research, the Council has set up nuclei of the Natural Drugs Research and Development Institute at Chittagong and the North-East Regional Laboratories at Rajshahi. A Precision Mechanics and Instrumentation Centre has also started functioning at Karachi with the collaboration of the Swiss Foundation.

The Council is the parent body of the Pakistan National Scientific and Technical Documentation Centre (PANSDOC). It makes grants-in-aid for specific research schemes to universities and to other research institutions.

A summary of the Council's structure and operations, which occupy over 800 scientists, is given at the end of this chapter.

Agricultural Research Council: Soon after Independence an *ad hoc* committee consisting of 15 members was set up to look after research work in Pakistan previously done by the Indian Council of Agricultural Research. This Committee was replaced by the Food and Agriculture Council of Pakistan (PACP) in 1951. In pursuance of the recommendations of the Food and Agriculture Commission Report, PACP was replaced by the Agricultural Research Council in 1964. The main function of the Council is to organize, co-ordinate and promote scientific research in various fields of agriculture and allied subjects. Forestry and animal husbandry have recently been included in its activities.

The Council administers a fund which is mainly from a cess levy on agricultural produce and placed at its disposal by the Central Government. The fund is spent in sanctioning schemes of agricultural research in different laboratories and research stations in the country. It has no laboratories or institutions of its own.

For the Fourth Plan, in addition to the extension and expansion of work being carried out by existing institutions, the Council has drawn up a comprehensive research scheme for the establishment of a Humid Zone Research Institute in East Pakistan, where research will be carried out on land and water use; agricultural economics; introduction of tropical fruit plants; animal diseases and nutrition ; and certain problems of fish culture related to crop production. A similar Institute for Arid Zone Research for West Pakistan, with sub-stations, has been proposed to tackle problems of dry farming; land and water use; animal production; and range management in arid and rain-fed areas. Moreover, a Veterinary Research Institute and a section for the production of biological products are also to be set up in East Pakistan during the Fourth Plan period.

Medical Research Council: The Council was established in 1953, but like the Agricultural Research Council, it has no laboratories or institutions of its own. It makes grants for approved research schemes submitted to it by individual research workers or medical institutions. It aims at organizing

and promoting research in various fields of medicine and public health. In collaboration with international agencies offering assistance, the Council has initiated research in certain central medical institutions like the Pak-Seato Cholera Research Laboratory at Dacca and the Jinnah Post-Graduate Medical Centre at Karachi.

Irrigation, Drainage and Flood Control Research Council: The Council was established as an autonomous body by the Ministry of Industries and Natural Resources in 1964. Its object was to organize, co-ordinate and promote research in the fields of hydraulics, irrigation, drainage, land reclamation, tube-wells and flood control. For its funds, the Council is wholly dependent on the Central Government.

The Council has no research institutions of its own. To date, it has completed a survey of all the research facilities concerning irrigation in the country, and has drawn certain conclusions which have been presented to the Government. It has suggested, for instance, that the most urgent requirement, at present, is to attract suitable research-minded people by offering them adequate salaries and fair prospects. Its proposal for setting up a flood control field research station in East Pakistan, which is annually affected by devastating floods, and institutes of hydrology, has been incorporated in the Fourth Plan, which in addition to planning a Flood Control Research Institute in East Pakistan, provides support for one institute of hydrology in each wing of the country.

There are also certain Government Departments that have facilities for research in irrigation, which is a matter of considerable concern, because Pakistan has the second largest irrigation system in the world, and annually loses about 100,000 acres of fertile land to water-logging and salinity.

Council for Works and Housing Research: This Council was created in 1964 on the recommendation of the Scientific Commission. About 25 per cent of the national budget is devoted to various forms of construction work in the country. The Council aims at initiating, promoting and guiding research having a bearing on problems connected with building and effective utilization of building materials or with any other allied matters referred to the Council by the Central Government.

The Council members are all honorary, and their work is mainly confined to surveys and reports. Hardly any funds have been allocated to the Council in the past. However, according to the Fourth Plan, the two Building Research Centres at Dacca and Lahore are to be developed into full-fledged Building and Housing Research Centres, and two more Centres of this type are to be set up at Karachi and Peshawar.

Other Research Organizations

(a) The *Pakistan Central Cotton Committee* was set up under an Act of Parliament in 1948, and draws its finances from a cess levied on the total production of cotton in the country. The quantum of the cess has varied from 25 paisas per bale to one rupee per bale. In addition to the cess, the

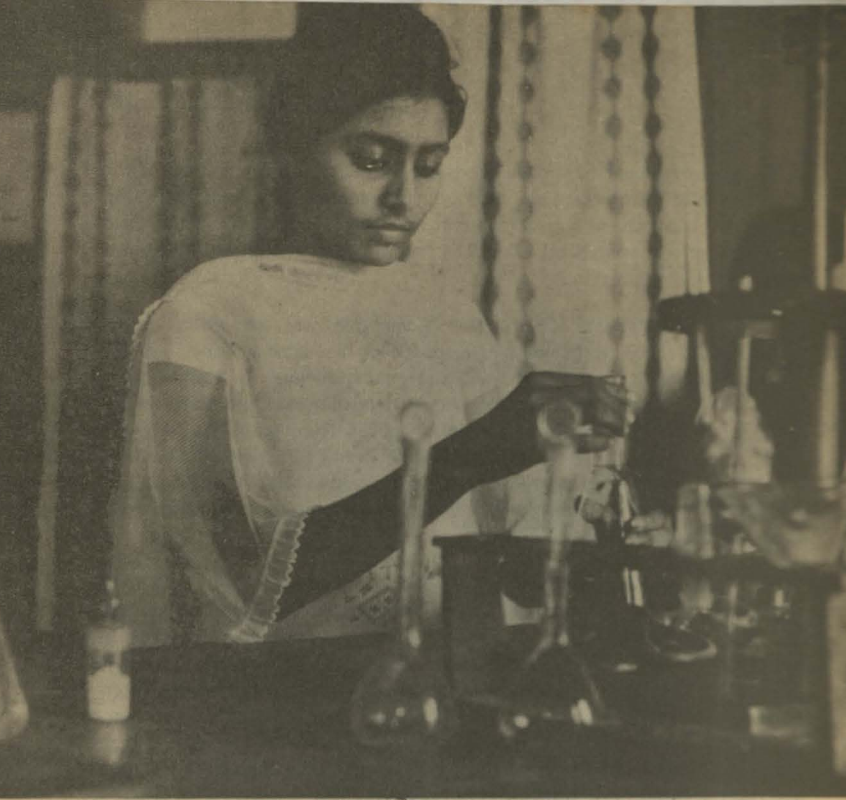
Central Government has made handsome grants to the Committee for the promotion of cotton research. It is primarily equipped for the investigation of problems connected with cotton fibre and yarn technology and the yield and uses of cottonseed oil, etc. The Institute is well staffed with trained scientists and technicians.

(b) The *Pakistan Central Jute Committee* was established by a resolution of the Government in January 1951. The aims and objects of the Committee are to improve the yield and quality of jute, to evolve better methods of retting and to find out new and extended uses of jute fibre. While its agricultural wing is almost entirely financed from grants made by the Central Government, its technological wing draws funds (Rs. 1.0 million) equally from the Government and the Pakistan Jute Mills Association, and operates through a Technological Board comprising representatives from Government and the jute industry.

(c) The *Pakistan Industrial Technical Assistance Centre* (PITAC) assists industry (i) in designing and manufacturing high precision dies, moulds, jigs, fixtures, gauges, etc., and (ii) in training and upgrading the skills of personnel in technical-managerial fields. PITAC carries out special surveys and conducts extensive studies on behalf of industries with a view to determine any difficulties experienced by them, and suggests measures to overcome handicaps, in order to increase productivity, and to standardize their products. It maintains close liaison with the Pakistan Standards Institute for the prescription of standards for local products.

Scientific Research at Universities : Scientific research in the country's universities and colleges is very limited. In 1964/65 only three of the non-professional universities (Panjab, Sind and Karachi) had doctoral research facilities, and these too in only botany, chemistry, biology and zoology, with a total number of 32 Ph.D. students. The position in the Agricultural University at Lyallpur, where 95 students were enrolled for Ph.D. studies, was somewhat better. The engineering universities, on the other hand, had no post-M.Sc. degrees at all. The affiliated colleges have neither the resources nor the funds to conduct any post-graduate research work.

Recently, facilities have been created for the award of M.Sc. and post-M.Sc. degrees in a wider range of subjects, such as biochemistry, physics, microbiology and pharmacy. The Karachi University has established a Post-Graduate Institute of Research in Chemistry, where M.Sc. students have been enrolled for research leading towards a Ph.D. degree. In 1962, a Post-Graduate University was established at Islamabad for studies leading to Ph.D. degrees in various scientific disciplines like physics, chemistry and mathematics. It has also been decided to develop advanced centres of training in selected fields at universities in both wings of the country. In this context, the Fourth Plan provision of Rs. 30 million for the development of scientific research at Universities, while far from large, is most welcome as a step in the right direction.



A research student of chemistry at Dacca University.

Research by Industry and Private Scientific Foundations : Very little research is undertaken by private industry in Pakistan. Modest efforts by industries have, however, over the years, led to some indirect contributions to scientific and technological research, especially in cotton textiles, jute and paints.

The Paint Manufacturers Association of Pakistan have hstablished a research laboratory in Lahore which is wholly financed by them. In the same way the textile industry has created an Institute of Textile Technology at Lyallpur to conduct research in cloth manufacture.

There is so far no central organization for the promotion of privately sponsored research.

There are several independent charitable foundations in Pakistan whose activities are confined to the field of education. They award fellowships and travel grants to deserving students for academic studies in science and technology, both at home and abroad. However, their entire emphasis is not restricted to science, and the amount donated is by no means very large. It represents a mere fraction of the total expenditure on education in the country. These foundations are generally financed by philanthropic industrialists and businessmen. At present the foundations do not finance any research activity either in Government laboratories or it educational institutions.

In addition, various foundations, viz. the Ford Foundation, the Asia Foundation, the Fulbright Foundation of America, the Nuffield Foundation and the British Council of the U.K. offer fellowships and scholarships for post-graduate and post-doctoral research abroad.

They also provide assistance for research activity by grants-in-aid in the form of books, periodicals and advice to research institutions in Pakistan. The Ford Foundation has, in addition, financed studies in agricultural and industrial projects in co-operation with the Government of Pakistan. Support for research in agriculture-oriented fields is also made available by US AID under the PL-480 programme.

Equipment, advisory personnel, scholarships and other facilities for scientific and technical training are provided by the Colombo Plan, UNESCO and the UN, and CENTO. SEATO has largely confined itself to promoting technical studies within its member countries by giving international scholarships in engineering.

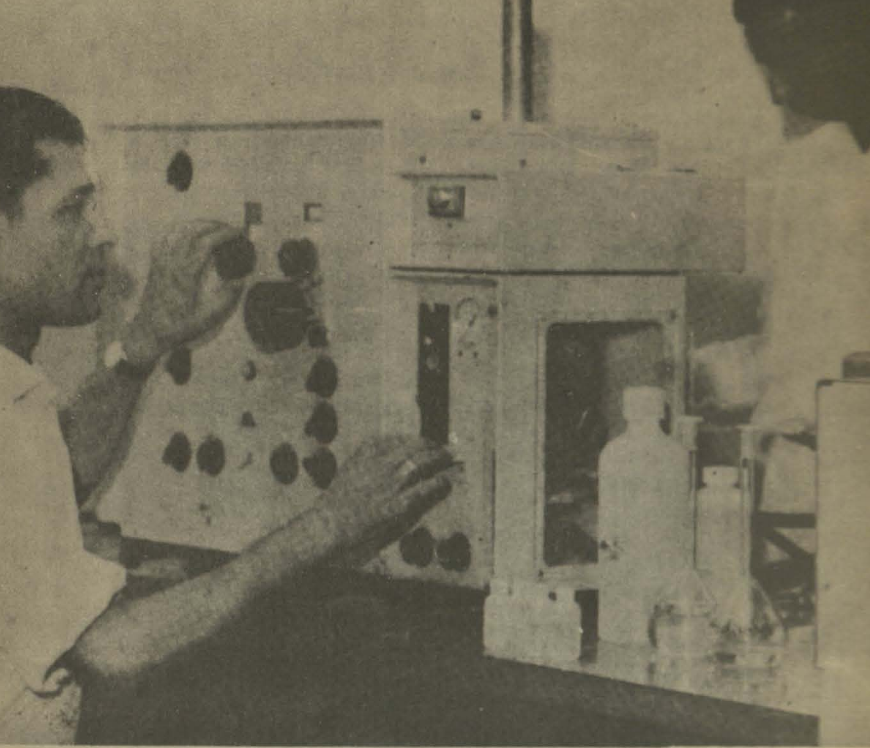
The Role of Scientific Societies : Learned societies are recognized universally as an important means of promoting higher studies and research. All important scientific societies and academies during pre-Independence days had their headquarters in regions which went to the share of India, and Pakistan had to make a fresh start. The first important organization to be established was the Pakistan Association for the Advancement of Science, which held its first annual conference in 1949 at Lahore, and has ever since organized such conferences annually in various cities throughout the country. This Association, along with the Scientific Society of Pakistan, and the Pakistan Association of Scientists and Scientific Professions, established subsequently at Karachi, have been playing an important role in bringing about a consciousness of the importance of science among the general public.

The Pakistan Academy of Sciences, which was established in 1953, has a limited membership, and only outstanding scientists who have made original contributions of a substantial nature to research are elected as its Fellows.

National Societies for various science subjects have also burgeoned of late, and are developing into promising organizations. Among these may be mentioned the Institute of Engineers, the Chemical Society, the Geographical Society, the Pakistan Medical Association, the Mathematical Society, the Statistical Association, and other similar bodies which have been functioning on an all-Pakistan basis. There are also a number of societies concerned with specific disciplines in each university, and in some of the research institutes. The Scientific Society of Pakistan and the Urdu Academy of Lahore are playing a vital role in the development of science through the medium of Urdu, which is one of the two national languages of Pakistan.

Severe budgetary problems, however, greatly handicap the activities of these societies.

Dissemination of the Results of Research : No central information organization exists in Pakistan for the dissemination of the results of research, but



Micro chemical and instrumental analysis laboratory of the PCSIR.

plans are under way for its creation.

At present, scientific information is mostly disseminated by individual scientists and institutions (the Research Councils) through scientific publications, research journals, technical and non-technical pamphlets, advertisements in newspapers, individual contacts between scientists and industrialists, and science conferences, particularly in the fields of agriculture and sericulture. Furthermore, in agriculture, a fairly effective extension service is operated by various agricultural research organizations and the agricultural universities, consisting of advisory personnel and trained workers, and disseminating agricultural pamphlets printed in regional languages, and other informative and demonstrative materials, to help the farmer meet his problems and to teach him methods and techniques of farm cultivation.

The Pakistan National Scientific and Technical Documentation Centre (PANSDOC) is in particular responsible for the dissemination of scientific literature in the country. Its technical services comprise four basic units (1) Document Procurement, (2) Bibliography, (3) Translation, and (4) Document Reproduction. These sections carry out their specified responsibilities in co-ordination and co-operation with each other. It has been meeting an increasing demand on its documentary resources, from scientific departments, universities, laboratories, and other scientific organizations and personnel of the country.

Application of the Results of Research: Responsibility for the application of the results of research is not organized on a central or nation-wide basis, but is allowed to work itself out in particular contexts and circumstances, largely on an *ad hoc* basis. The PCSIR has, however, set up a Research Utilization Committee which is responsible for promoting the industrial utilization of the results of researches carried out in its laboratories, following pilot-plant studies on the productive exploitation of these results in terms of optimum operational conditions and economic feasibility. As indicated before, the Fourth Plan has proposed that measures should be taken to assure the full and wide utilization of the fruits of research.

International Scientific Relations: The over-all responsibility for Pakistan's international scientific relations rests primarily with various Ministries of the Government. These Ministries may appoint institutions, individual scientists or administrators as representatives in international scientific co-operation or scientific meetings, and direct contact is thus established between scientific institutions in Pakistan and corresponding foreign institutions. But an over-all co-ordination of such participation is lacking.

Some individual organizations have, with the permission of the Government, established bilateral relations for co-operation in advanced training and educational research and development with various countries.

Pakistan is an active member of IAEA, UNESCO, the Commonwealth Scientific Committee, the Scientific Committee for Oceanographic Research, the International Union of Crystallography, the International Union of Pure and Applied Physics, and other international scientific bodies. There are also individual private contacts between Pakistani and foreign scientists and scientific organizations.

Operations of PCSIR: The Laboratories have research divisions for separate disciplines. The following Research Divisions in the multifunctional laboratories of the Council at Karachi, Dacca, Lahore, Chittagong, Peshawar and Rajshahi have been set up with due regard for the requirements of industry in terms of raw materials of the region.

I. PCSIR Laboratories, Karachi:

1. Physical Research and Testing Division.
2. Chemical Research Division (including Paints and Plastics).
3. Biochemical Research Division.
4. Drugs and Pharmaceutical Research Division.
5. Building Materials Research Division.
6. Fuel Research Division.
7. Engineering Research Division with Workshop and Pilot-Plant Sections.

II. PCSIR Laboratories, Dacca:

1. Plant and Animal Products Research Division.
2. Fuel Research Division.
3. Food and Fruit Technology Research Division.
4. Leather Research Division.

5. Glass and Ceramics Research Division.

III. PCSIR Laboratories, Lahore :

1. Metallurgical Research Division (including ore dressing and testing of minerals).
2. Industrial Fermentation Research Division.
3. Oils, Fats and Waxes Research Division.
4. Glass and Ceramics Research Division.
5. Food Technology Research Division.

IV. PCSIR Laboratories, Peshawar :

1. Indigenous Drugs Research Division.
2. Fruit Technology Research Division.
3. Mineralogical Research Division.
4. Wool Research Division.

V. PCSIR Laboratories, Rajshahi :

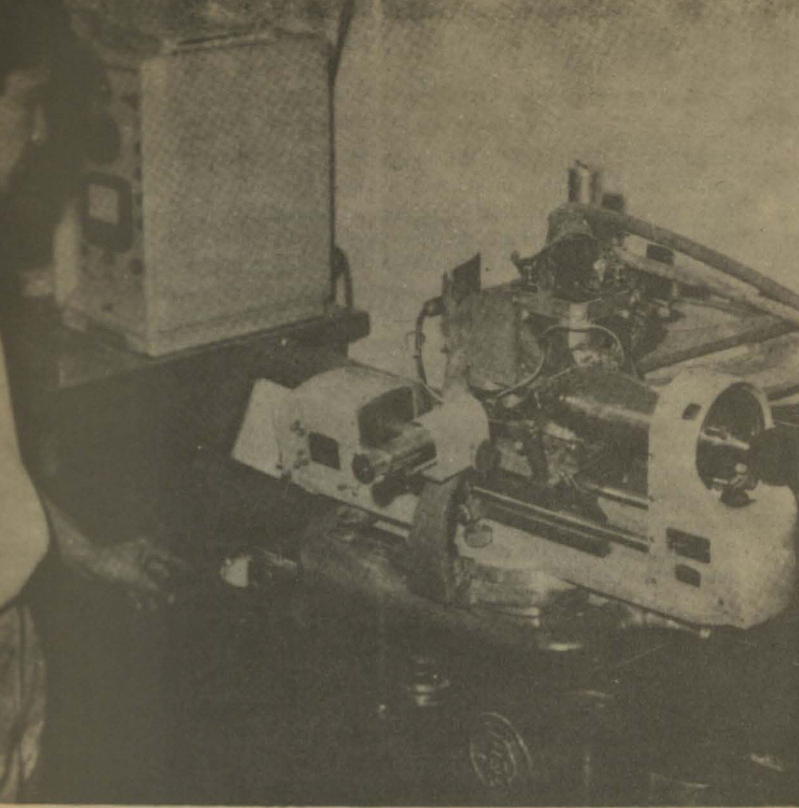
1. Lac Research Division.
2. Oils, Fats and Waxes Research Division.
3. Fibre Research Division.

VI. Natural Drugs and Research Development Institute, Chittagong :

1. Botanical Research Division.
2. Chemical Research Division.
3. Pharmacological Research Division.
4. Pilot-Plant Division.

Apart from work of a fundamental nature undertaken in these laboratories, over 200 new processes have been developed that have a direct bearing on the industrial sector of the country. Out of these, 67 have so far gone into production, 96 are ready to go into production, and 23 are ready to be leased out for commercial exploitation. The production capacity of most of these processes is at present not very large; but the annual turnover of the products based on PCSIR processes is expected to increase quite rapidly—for instance, from Rs. 12.37 million in 1969 to Rs. 20.8 million in 1970. The annual production level for all the processes so far developed by PCSIR is estimated at about Rs. 60 million. Taken together, their impact on over-all economic development is substantial. A significant aspect of this development is that these processes aim at the utilization of indigenous raw materials, equipment and technical know-how, which results in a large saving of foreign exchange, estimated at Rs. 6.4 million in 1969, and rising to Rs. 30 million per year with the realization of the potential output of Rs. 60 million. Moreover, some of these processes are also likely to be good foreign exchange earners.

In the September 1965 conflict with India, a situation was created wherein the path of least resistance, in the form of adoption of imported technical know-how and the establishment of industries based on them, was no longer found easy and practicable. Shortage of imported raw materials created bottlenecks in many industries. The industrialists of Pakistan were for the first time forced to refer their problems to the scientists of PCSIR, who invariably found satisfactory solutions for them. This opened up a vital communication between scientists and industrialists, which has gathered



Composition and structural analysis of minerals by X-ray diffraction at PCSIR.

momentum over the years. The *ad hoc* problems solved for industry cover a wide range, extending from such items as plastic coating of silver articles and benefication of low grade graphite, to the development of a rubber lining compound and water-proofing composition for textiles. So far, over 70 such *ad hoc* problems have been satisfactorily solved, resulting in more effective utilization of indigenous raw materials and technical know-how.

Some of the processes currently in production or ready for exploitation include the following : mosquito repellant oils; a broad-spectrum, chlorinated pesticide, Petkolin, for plant protection ; vinegar production ; liquid gold ; sulphonated oil ; jutoid water-proof matting ; petrol gas plant; cemto integral powder water-proofer for cement and concrete ; Fixempro dry distemper ; Balcrete, a liquid used for the manufacture of light-weight foam concrete; Hymax, a fish-liver oil with vitamins A and D; plastic resin-coated textile industry bobbins and coans; Cemcon integral liquid water-proofer for cement and concrete; Portica wood-chip board ; Antifireol fire-fighting composition ; fire-fighting foam composition; Caoutchouchine denaturant for rectified spirit; Cuprex and zincox wood preservatives; Saccharon, an iron saccharate; process for tanning lizard skin; process for manufacturing cotton picking bands; process for the manufacture of transcript varnish; process for the lubrication of distilled

water plant; production of caffeine; Chinese blue manufacturing process; extraction of sulphur from indigenous ore; white factice for rubber industry; ether production from alcohol; printing and cancellation inks; Fuller's Earth; marbolite, an artificial marble from barytes; Packem pozzolanic cement; manufacture of poultry feed; process for the manufacture of domestic water filters; guar meal from guar gum industry wastes; resin for textiles (a substitute of an extensively imported product); fish protein concentrate; synthetic honey; Sirola, a caffein-based carbonated beverage; carbon electrodes; brake fluids; essential oils (*khavi* and *nair*); self-lubricating bearings; manufacture of nicotine sulphate.

Other Activities: Besides the above, PCSIR has undertaken extensive programmes in the services sector. The Pakistan Scientific and Technical Documentation Centre (PANSDOC) provides a wide range of technical documentation services, which have already been indicated. Its *Pakistan Science Abstracts* is the only abstracts publication in Pakistan; and on request, the Centre also furnishes detailed bibliographies in special topics.

The PCSIR has maintained a full-fledged publication branch since 1958, when the *Pakistan Journal of Scientific and Industrial Research* appeared. The following publications have since followed :

Science Chronicle (1962), *Science and Industry* (1963), *Purugammi Biggan* (1963), *Scientific Researches* (1964) and *Karawan-i-Science* (1964). Since 1966, the PCSIR has also initiated a series of research bulletins and monographs. The four technical publications of the Council : *Pakistan Journal of Scientific and Industrial Research, Science and Industry, Scientific Researches,* and its special research bulletins have now won international recognition, being covered by over 40 bibliographic and abstracts agencies all over the world, the most prominent among them being those of the Commonwealth.

On the infrastructure side, the PCSIR has opened a training centre in collaboration with the Swiss Foundation for Technical Assistance, Zurich, for training technical personnel. The Centre, known as the Pak-Swiss Precision Mechanics and Instrumentation Training Centre, has been in operation at Karachi since 1965 ; and another is shortly to be opened at Dacca.

For the Fourth Plan period, PCSIR proposes, among other research work, to give special attention to the development of processes to improve low-grade raw materials, including, in particular, available antimony and iron ore, which at present remain unexploited, and low-grade coal; to utilize natural gas as a substitute for petrol and diesel oil in motor vehicles; to improve the quality of leather, especially for export; to diversify the use of jute, because of the keen competition it faces from synthetic and other natural fibres; to improve the quality of cotton textiles to stand their ground in the highly competitive international market; and to improve the quality of Pakistani woollen fibres.

TABLE I

Sectoral Allocations for Scientific Research during The Fourth Five-Year Plan

(Million rupees)

Sub-sectors	*Allocation*
1. Agriculture	265.70
2. Power	37.00
3. Industry	150.00
4. Health	10.00
5. Water	·142.00
6. Physical Planning and Housing	25.00
7. Communications and Transport	78.20
8. Scientific Researches at Universities	30.00
9. Family Planning	15.00
TOTAL	752.90

TABLE II

Expenditure on Research and Development

(Rs.)

	1963/64	1964/65	1965/66	1966/67
I. Science Departments of Universities*	2,442,128	2,523,662	3,496,691	3,832,898
II. Research Councils	29,252,879	39,757,354	38,680,479	38,503,524
III. Scientific Departments of Central Government	22,414,114	20,545,735	18,089,900	18,263,546
IV. Scientific Departments of East Pakistan Government	1,972,024	1,917,749	1,880,604	1,962,285
V. Scientific Departments of West Pakistan Government	14,914,909	15,649,431	12,930,549	14,200,733
Total	70,996,054	80,393,931	75,078,223	76,761,986
Total in million	71	80	75	77
GNP in million (at market prices)	40,995	48,403	52,696	60,613
Percentage	0.17	0.17	0.14	0.13

*Assuming that 10 per cent of total expenditure on science education and on research has been incurred on R. & D.

Source : National Science Council, which is also the source for the following Tables II—VI.

TABLE III

Expenditure on Science Departments of Universities

(Rs.)

	1963/64	1964/65	1965/66	1966/67
1. Panjab University	1,257,657	1,352,902	2,294,312	3,137,181
2. Peshawar University	558,225	531,659	578,409	677,684
3. Sind University	931,130	1,087,529	1,283,673	1,244,009
4. West Pakistan University of Engineering and Technology	3,038,700	3,199,167	3,774,200	4,378,190
5. West Pakistan Agricultural University	3,173,180	5,223,821	10,997,720	11,460,535
6. Karachi University	1,633,282	2,714,012	3,144,844	3,205,325
7. Dacca University	2,166,866	1,933,958	1,453,547	1,581,187
8. Rajshahi University	1,226,370	1,125,628	940,528	1,119,788
9. East Pakistan University of Engineering and Technology	9,442,002	6,842,010	9,062,000	7,470,000
10. East Pakistan Agricultural University	993,870	1,225,937	1,437,679	1,541,848
11. Islamabad University	Started functioning in 1966-67.			3,613,239
12. Chittagong University	Science Departments not yet opened.			
TOTAL	24,421,282	25,236,623	34,966,912	38,328,986
10 per cent of total expenditure assumed to have been incurred on R & D	2,442,128	2,523,662	3,496,691	3,832,898

TABLE IV

Expenditure on Scientific Departments of the Central Government

(Rs.)

	1963/64	1964/65	1965/66	1966-67
1. Zoological Survey Department, Karachi	323,764	286,700	362,550	275,700
2. Pakistan Central Jute Committee, Dacca	1,991,427	2,080,000	2,270,000	3,355,000
3. Pakistan Central Cotton Committee, Karachi	2,018,332	2,158,351	2,032,573	2,652,700
4. Department of Locust Warning and Plant Quarantine, Karachi	461,500	461,500	560,200	591,200
5. Soil Survey Project of Pakistan, Lahore	186,015	1,821,229	965,642	1,512,040
6. Pakistan Tea Research Station, Sylhet	393,592	534,275	1,518,300	646,510
7. National Research Institute of Family Planning, Karachi	18,457	148,700	254,100	425,000
8. Medical Social Research Project, Lahore	281,517	295,973	273,732	295,061
9. Public Health Education Research Project, Dacca	220,237	220,357	220,357	220,357
10. Malaria Institute of Pakistan, Dacca	219,132	221,735	206,179	183,835
11. Marine Fisheries Department, Karachi	76,600	76,600	47,100	35,000
12. Geological Survey of Pakistan, Quetta	11,981,021	9,797,915	7,723,822	6,280,746
13. Central Testing Laboratories, Karachi/Dacca/Lahore	1,872,977	1,872,977	1,330,384	1,457,200
14. Unani Research Centre, Karachi	25,567	25,567	30,000	33,400
15. Directorate of Nutrition Survey and Research (National Health Centre), Islamabad	543,856	543,856	294,961	299,797
Total	22,414,114	20,545,735	18,089,900	18,263,546

TABLE V

Expenditure on Scientific Departments of the East Pakistan Government

(Rs.)

	1963/64	1964/65	1965/66	1966/67
1. Directorate of Livestock Services, Dacca	1,006,883	907,270	890,322	975,674
2. Fisheries Technological Laboratories, Comilla	214,303	195,686	184,310	315,434
3. Fresh Water Research Station, Chandpur	273,710	334,914	403,389	242,071
4. Directorate of Commerce and Industries, Dacca	36,851	36,851	36,851	36,851
5. East Pakistan Forest Industries Development Corporation, Sylhet.	52,000	52,000	41,000	130,000
6. Dacca Medical College, Dacca	14,065	6,752	4,752	4,752
7. Rajshahi Medical College, Rajshahi	1,743	9,300	1,704	—
8. Mymensingh Medical College, Mymensingh	633	3,140	—	—
9. Institute of Public Health, Dacca	103,861	103,861	103,861	103,861
10. East Pakistan Research and Evaluation Centre, Dacca	267,975	267,975	214,415	153,642
11. Animal Husbandry Research Institute, Comilla	—	—	—	—
Total	1,972,024	1,917,749	1,880,604	1,962,285

TABLE VI

Expenditure on Scientific Departments of the West Pakistan Government

(Rs.)

	1963/64	1964/65	1965/66	1966/67
1. West Pakistan Industrial Development Corporation Karachi	157,980	157,980	393,705	385,837
2. Irrigation Research Institute, Lahore	1,899,400	2,534,100	903,400	1,020,500
3. Building Research Station, Lahore	420,790	550,455	371,062	550,526
4. Road Research Laboratories, Lahore	341,875	179,546	205,218	188,520
5. Government Industries Research Laboratories, Lahore	186,620	173,892	177,383	156,592
6. Institute of Hygiene and Preventive Medicine, Lahore	852,740	997,944	1,136,559	1,190,125
7. Agricultural Research Institute, Tandojam	2,724,515	2,724,515	2,918,541	3,056,194
8. Agricultural Research Institute, Lyallpur	5,334,658	5,334,658	4,781,060	5,713,685
9. Agricultural Research Institute, Tarnab, Peshawar	2,996,331	2,996,331	2,043,621	1,938,394
10. Animal Husbandry Research Institute, Peshawar	—	—	—	—
Total	14,914,909	15,649,431	12,930,549	14,200,733

Health

IN ORDER to ensure a systematic development of better health facilities for the nation, the Third Plan's programme for public health was prepared within the framework of a long-term 20-year perspective plan, which in physical terms aims at the availability of one doctor for 3,000 persons by 1985. The Third Plan's revised allocation for health, excluding family planning, amounted to Rs. 900.5 million, which was nearly three times the Second Plan allocation of Rs. 319.5 million. In practice, an expenditure of Rs. 498.4 million had been made by the middle of 1969 and a budget allocation of Rs. 139.4 million was provided for 1969/70, achieving 71 per cent of the Plan objective.

Administration : The Provincial Governments, with the help of local authorities, deal with health administration. The Central Ministry of Health, and its attached departments—such as the Directorate of Central Health Establishments, the Directorate of T.B. Control, the Malaria Eradication Board and the Nutrition Directorate—co-ordinate policy.

Such professional organizations as the Pakistan Medical Council and Pakistan Nursing Council work in co-operation with the Central and Provincial Governments. A considerable proportion of doctors are in private practice or are employed by business or commercial firms, and there are also many private hospitals and clinics, some of which are set up by missionary organizations.

At the time of Independence, Pakistan had only some 1,200 registered doctors, giving a doctor—population ratio of around 1:65,000, and there were practically no nurses. By 1970, the number of registered doctors in the country had risen to about 21,000, the number of hospital beds from

16,900 to over 43,000 and of qualified nurses from 204 to about 5,000, which figures before the end of 1970 were expected to rise to 21,450, 43,800 and 5,400 respectively.

Public Health Objectives of the Fourth Plan : The Fourth Plan aims at realizing the following objectives in the field of public health :

(i) To improve the living and working environment of the population through better sanitation, water supply, disposal of sewage, disposal of industrial wastes, control of insects and disease vectors, better housing facilities, the prevention of air and water pollution, and epidemiological services.

(ii) To provide better nutrition and nutritional education.

(iii) To develop and improve comprehensive health services through health centres and sub-centres and poly-clinics for maternal and child health care, care of the sick, implementation of the family planning programme, immunization of children, and when necessary of adults.

(iv) To provide special health care to infants, children, adolescents and mothers and to the handicapped, with particular attention to reducing infant and maternal mortality through comprehensive care.

(v) To strengthen measures for the control of gastro-intestinal diseases, of tuberculosis and other communicable diseases, and of mental illness.

(vi) To set up industrial health establishments to fight against the most prevalent diseases, to care for workers and their families, and to rehabilitate workers whose working capacity has been reduced by industrial diseases or accidents.

(vii) To provide a sufficient number of referral hospitals with facilities of specialist services to deal with seriously ill patients at the sub-division and district level.

(viii) To provide and ensure a sufficient quantity of drugs for preventive health measures.

(ix) To train doctors, teachers, specialists, para-medical personnel and auxiliary health workers.

(x) To integrate services at all levels from districts down to the union level.

Doctors : Like other underdeveloped countries, Pakistan has a shortage of doctors. At the beginning of 1970, there were about 21,000 registered doctors in the country for a population of about 128 million which works out to an average doctor-population ratio of 1 : 6,100. However, the actual range varies considerably from area to area, and particularly between urban and rural areas, as a large proportion of doctors are concentrated in cities. Furthermore, the number of doctors in West Pakistan is substantially higher than in East Pakistan—12,900 compared with 8,100.

Nurses and Midwives : By 1970 there were about 5,000 registered nurses. and the annual output from 27 training centres amounted to about 450 qualified nurses. In addition, there were 2,653 nurse-midwives and 1,063 midwives registered in the country up to the beginning of 1970. The annual output of nurse-midwives and midwives from 37 training institutions currently is about 300.

Hospitals : In 1970 there were over 43,000 hospital beds, as against the Third Plan target of 48,000 beds by 1970. This provides a hospital bed-population ratio of about 1 : 3,000. Specialized treatment for complicated diseases is available at the larger hospitals and at some special clinics. The average Government hospital usually has six resident doctors and arrangements for the services of consultants. Treatment at these hospitals is free for Government servants and for those who cannot afford to pay.

Dispensaries : There are dispensaries throughout the country, with an average dispensary-population ratio of 1 : 50,000. They have doctors and other staff in attendance, and are well-stocked with general medicines.

Rural Health Centres : By the beginning of 1970, a total of 186 rural health centres (101 in East and 85 in West Pakistan), with 983 beds were in operation, as against the ambitious Third Plan target of 672 rural health centres. Each centre consists of a primary unit and three sub-centres, which together are intended to provide medical aid for about 60,000 people. The primary unit has one doctor, one health visitor, one health laboratory technician, and auxiliary staff. The sub-centre has one compounder-dresser, one nurse-*dai*, one peon-cum-medicine carrier, one health assistant and one cleaner. These

Two students of medicine at Dacca University Medical College.



rural health centres, besides providing a comprehensive medical cover to rural populations, are designed to create an infrastructure of health services which will ultimately take over and maintain major public health programmes, such as malaria eradication, T.B. control and BCG vaccination, and the general control of epidemics. However, the present provision is acutely inadequate as it is capable of catering to the needs of only a little over 11 million people, or just 11 per cent of the total rural population of the country.

Diseases Control

Malaria Eradication : A 14-year programme for malaria eradication was prepared with the assistance of WHO, at an estimated cost of Rs. 660 million, and the Government started its implementation in 1960/61. By the middle of 1969 the programme had covered a total population of 110.2 million—56.7 million in East Pakistan and 53.5 million in West Pakistan.

A semi-autonomous organization was set up by the Malaria Eradication Board Ordinance of 1961 (amended in 1965) to implement the programme. This organization has a Central Malaria Eradication Board presided over by the Minister of Health, whose functions are policy-making, co-ordination, and over-all supervision and responsibility for the success of the programme.

There are Provincial Malaria Eradication Boards presided over by the Secretaries of Health Departments in West Pakistan, and by the Director of Health Services in East Pakistan. The Provincial Boards are responsible for the actual implementation of the programme and have full control over the personnel and utilization of finances in their respective Provinces.

The Malaria Eradication Board has also prepared a separate plan for Karachi, in accordance with which a Vector Control Board has been set up under the supervision of the Commissioner of Karachi. This Board started operations early in 1968.

Tuberculosis : Tuberculosis is another major public health problem which takes a heavy toll of people every year. A Directorate of Tuberculosis Control was established under the Health Division of the Ministry of Health, Labour and Social Welfare in 1960. In the Provinces also, Officers-in-Charge of the T.B. Control Programme have been appointed.

In 1970 there were more than 100 T.B. clinics in the country, and a total of 39,237,903 persons had been given BCG vaccinations.

A 20-year National T.B. Control Programme has been prepared, whose basic feature is the provision of preventive and curative services to rural areas, as well as to cities and towns, by integrating the tuberculosis services at the periphery with other public health and medical services.

The BCG Production Laboratory produced 5,459,400 doses of BCG solvent and 16,404,000 doses of tuberculine during 1968/69. During the same period, the Laboratory supplied the teams and static centres with 1,495,400 doses of tuberculine, 5,169,600 doses of BCG solvent and 2,235,800 doses of BCG vaccine.

Cholera : During 1969/70, a total of 4,203 cases with 1,319 deaths (provisional figures) were reported from East Pakistan and 446 cases with no deaths (provisional figures) were reported from West Pakistan. As a result of research work being carried out at the Pakistan-SEATO Cholera Research Laboratory, Dacca—established in 1960—a satisfactory regime of treatment has been evolved, with the result that the case fatality from cholera has been reduced appreciably.

Smallpox : A total of 1,668 smallpox cases with 554 deaths (provisional figures) from East Pakistan and 3,077 cases with 763 deaths (provisional figures) from West Pakistan were reported during 1969/70. These figures suggest that considerable success has been achieved in efforts to eradicate this disease, since its reported incidence stood at a total of 12,732 cases in 1967.

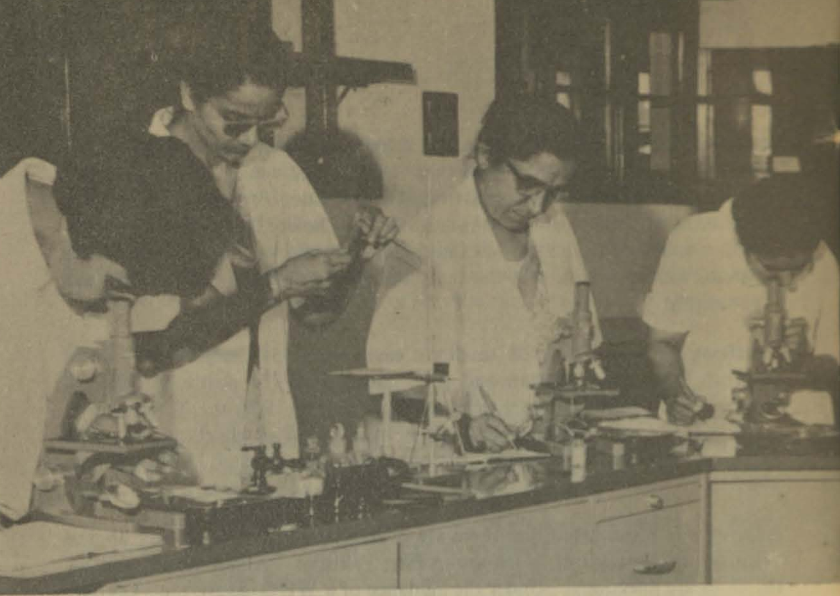
Leprosy : It is estimated that there are over 100,000 cases of leprosy in the country, the majority of which are in East Pakistan. About 25 per cent of the cases are infectious. Under the guidance of a WHO expert, the Leprosy Control Project, which incorporates four operational areas with four mobile clinics, provides treatment at over 200 selected centres. There are two static clinics at Dacca and Nilphamari, each with 20 beds and an out-patient department.

Two rehabilitation centres have now been in operation for about two years at Sylhet and at Nilphamari. The latter centre is eventually to be transformed into a constructive surgery attached to the static clinic.

In West Pakistan, there is a hospital in Karachi with 200 beds which receives substantial grants from the Central Government. Balakot, in the north, has an asylum with 50 beds.

Nutrition : According to the Directorate of Nutrition Survey and Research, the calorie intake per person per day is 2,202 in East Pakistan and 2,111 in West Pakistan, as against the average requirement of 2,350 calories recommended by the Inter-Department Committee on Nutrition. Surveys carried out in both zones of the country also reveal other significant nutritional deficiencies in the diets of the people.

East Pakistan Survey : Both rural and urban populations consume large quantities of cereals (mainly rice), which by weight constitute 63.5 per cent of the average diet in rural areas and 50 per cent in urban areas. The carbohydrate content of the total calory intake in rural areas is about 83 per cent and in urban areas 76 per cent. Protein accounts for little over 10 per cent of the total calory intake in both rural and urban areas; and of this, only a small proportion consists of animal protein, of which the intake in rural areas is considerably lower than in urban areas. Cooking fats, particularly mustard oil, are taken in small quantities; and average consumption of fats in rural areas is only half of what it is in urban areas. Vitamin A deficiency is severe and widespread.



Nurses engaged in specialized study at the Jinnah Post-Graduate Medical Centre, Karachi.

West Pakistan Survey : The per capita consumption of pulses and milk as well as cereals is higher in rural than in urban areas. On the other hand, the per capita consumption of meat and other animal proteins in urban areas is twice what it is in rural areas. While the total protein intake is considered more or less satisfactory, the proportion of animal protein is low, only around 10 per cent in rural areas. Vitamin A and riboflavin deficiency is widespread, due to which anemia is frequently found to be present in clinical examinations.

In East Pakistan, work on the improvement of the Laboratory for Food, Water and Drugs Analysis was completed, and the construction of the Biological Production Laboratory and Nutrition Research Laboratory at Mohakhali was in progress. In West Pakistan, a Food Analysis and Research Laboratory at Lahore started functioning, and the construction of a Drugs Testing Laboratory was started. Work was begun on setting up a Food Analysis Laboratory at Multan. The construction of residential accommodation for the Food Analysis laboratory at Quetta is under way. Work on the establishment of the Blood Transfusion Institute at Lahore was also taken in hand, besides taking steps to acquire land for the construction of an alternate medical stores depot at Lahore.

The construction of the National Health Laboratories at Islamabad was completed, and some of the laboratories, the Bureau of Laboratories, and the BCG Production Laboratories were shifted from Karachi to their new premises at Islamabad.

Control of Drugs : The control of drugs within the country comes under the

Health Division, with a Drugs Controller at Islamabad and Assistant Drugs Controllers at Dacca, Karachi and Lahore. During the year 1969/70, the following main tasks were undertaken by the Drugs Control Administration:

(i) A total of 8,828 Clearance Certificates for release of imported drugs and medicines were issued. The total value of the imported products comes to about Rs. 84.4 million.

(ii) Import Licences issued included 6,480 for general drugs—on which fees amounting to about Rs. 160,800 were realized and credited to the Government Treasury—and 268 for narcotic drugs.

(iii) Over 1,100 samples of drugs and medicines were tested by the Central Drugs Laboratory, Karachi, and fees amounting to about Rs. 1.1 million were realized and credited to the Government Treasury.

(iv) About 572,200 metric tons of technical DDT (100%), 691.200 metric tons of wettable DDT (75%) and 62,600 metric tons of reformulated DDT (75%) were produced at the DDT Factory, Nowshera. The produce was mostly supplied to the Malaria Eradication Programme.

(v) The Drugs Research Institute, established in precincts of the National Health Laboratory at Islamabad, is being equipped with modern equipment which is being procured through the agency of WHO on a re-imbursable basis. Some of the equipment, worth Rs. 250,000, has already reached. Another order for the supply of more equipment, worth another Rs. 250,000, has also been placed, and the goods are on their way.

(vi) The Central Pharmacy Council finalized the syllabus for the B. Pharmacy Course and the Diploma/Intermediate Courses, which will soon be introduced

(vii) The building for the Regional Drugs Laboratory at Chittagong is nearing completion.

Medical Education and Training: There are 13 medical colleges in Pakistan, of which seven are located in East Pakistan and six in West Pakistan. The average output of these institutions now is about 1,100 medical graduates a year. While three of these colleges also provide facilities for post-graduate studies, there also are five institutions which are exclusively devoted to such studies. On an average, some 100 students each year complete their studies for a post-graduate degree or diploma.

In East Pakistan, while steps were taken to improve existing medical colleges, progress was also made in the construction of medical colleges at Chittagong and Mymensingh, of the dental college and hospital at Dacca, and of the medical college and hospital at Sylhet. Work on converting the Rajshahi Medical School into a college was completed, and it has started functioning as a college with an attached 500-bed hospital. The Mitford School at Dacca has been converted into a college providing a condensed M.B.B.S. course for medical licentiates.

Of the two new medical colleges envisaged in the Third Plan, the college at Barisal started functioning, while the other, at Rangpur was scheduled to open before the end of 1970.

In West Pakistan, work was begun on the 500-bed teaching hospital

for the Khyber Medical College at Peshawar. Expansion of the hospitals attached to medical colleges at Karachi and Multan, and improvement of the Fatima Jinnah Medical College, Lahore, and the Dow Medical College, Karachi, were taken up.

Under the Central Government programme, work on the improvement and expansion of the Jinnah Post-graduate Medical Centre at Karachi progressed satisfactorily, and construction of a 300-bed hospital for the School and Department of Pediatrics in the same premises was completed. (Also see chapter on Education).

Pakistan Medical Council : During the year 1969/70, the Medical Council Registered 1,584 doctors as detailed below :

	East Pakistan	*West Pakistan*	*Total*
1. M.B.B.S.	386	1,136	1,522
2. B.D.S.	1	61	62

The Pakistan Medical Council also decided to introduce a Compulsory Internship Scheme, inspected 19 hospitals, and approved four hospitals. The Internship Scheme was to have come into force from July 1, 1970; but due to certain administrative and financial difficulties, of the Provincial Governments, its implementation was postponed to January 1, 1971.

College of Physicians and Surgeons : The College of Physicians and Surgeons, established in October, 1962, conducts examinations for the award of

Helping a paraplegic to walk again.



diplomas in such subjects as medicine, surgery, gynaecology, obstetrics and pediatrics, and for admission to the Fellowship of the College. It also accords recognition for residencies to hospitals, and in 1969/70 it recognized 20 more hospitals for residencies in MCPS and FCPS.

To date the following number of Memberships (MCPS) and Fellowships (FCPS) have been awarded :

Year	FCPS	MCPS
1965	—	8
1966	—	21
1967	2	7
1968	14	30
1969	14	18
1970	19	33
Total :	49	117

Unani, Ayurvedic and Homoeopathic Systems of Medicine : In Pakistan, where a majority of the population lives in rural areas, there are continuing demands for indigenous and inexpensive methods of treatment. In order to weed out quacks, Government enacted the Unani, Ayurvedic and Homoeopathic Practitioners' Act, 1965, to regulate qualifications and to provide for the registration of practitioners of these systems of medicine.

The existing practitioners of these systems are required to register themselves with their respective Boards: the Board of Unani and Ayurvedic Systems of Medicine and the Board of Homoeopathic System of Medicine. The members of these Boards have been elected/nominated for a further period of 5 years on the expiry of the terms of the first Board in 1968.

By the middle of 1969 the Unani and Ayurvedic Board had registered 34,000 *tabibs* and *ayurveds*, and the Homoeopathic Board had likewise registered 25,000 homoeopathic doctors. However, the Board of Unani, Ayurvedic and Homoeopathic Systems of Medicine were not able to complete the initial registration of *tabibs*, *vaids* and homoeopaths in 1969/70, and the remainder of this task has been carried over to the year 1970/71.

The Homoeopathic Board has recommended the recognition of some Homoeopathic Colleges in East Pakistan, and the case is under consideration in consultation with the Government of East Pakistan. Representatives of the Homoeopathic Board attended two International Homoeopathic Congresses at Rome and Athens, and thereafter visited France, England and West Germany to study methods of homoeopathic pharmacy and teaching.



A nurses' training class in West Pakistan.

Medical Projects : Appreciable progress has been made with work on the following schemes which are scheduled for completion during 1970/71 :

(i) Development of the Pediatrics Department of the Jinnah Post-graduate Medical Centre, Karachi.

(ii) Second floor over the out-patient Department at the Jinnah Post-graduate Medical Centre, Karachi.

(iii) T.B. Control (Pilot Area) Project, Dacca.

(iv) Regional Central Drugs Laboratory, Chittagong.

(v) Addition of a 60-bed ward in connection with studies in tropical medicine and public health at Dacca.

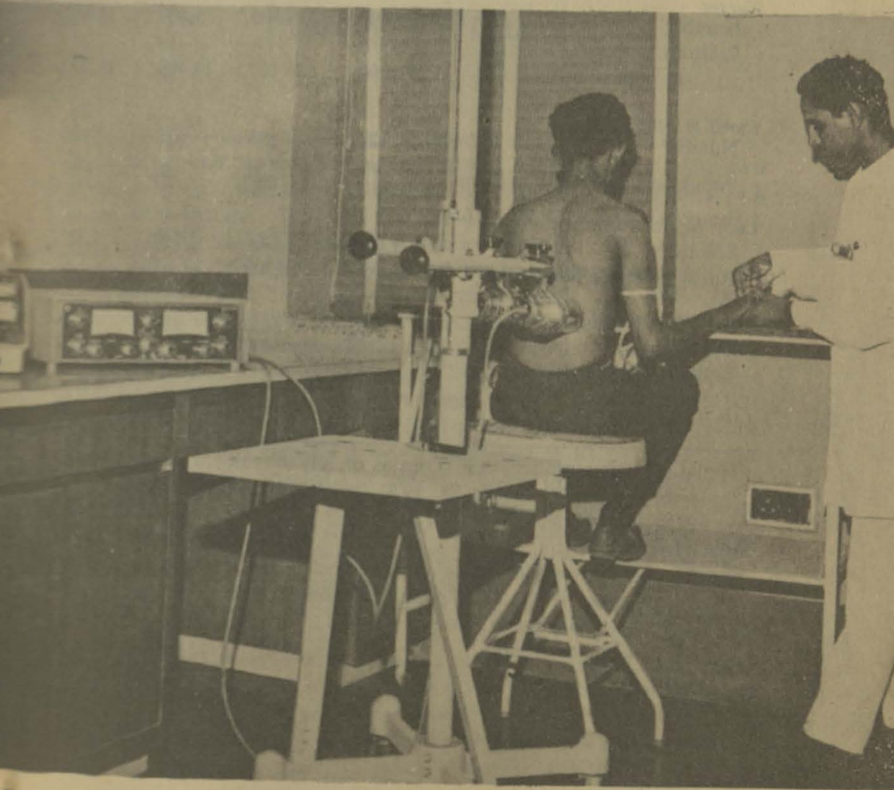
(vi) Improvement of the Jinnah Post-graduate Medical Centre (non-residential), Karachi.

Work on two major projects, a school of tropical medicine combined with a central hospital at Dacca, and a 500-bed hospital at Islamabad, made only slow progress because of delays in the finalization of plans and designs.

Besides these on-going projects, the spadework on the following new Central schemes included in the Fourth Five-Year Plan has also begun :

(i) T.B. Research Hospital with 100 beds, Dacca/Islamabad.

(ii) Improvement of Port and Airport Health Departments in both wings of the country.
(iii) Promotion of medical research in East and West Pakistan.
(iv) Institute of Post-graduate Medicine, Dacca.
(v) Post-graduate College of Nursing, Dacca.



Diagnosis of kidney malfunction by radioisotope tracer technique at a PAEC Medical Centre.

TABLE I

Physical Achievements and Targets for Public Health, 1965-1975

	Achievements		Targets	
	1965	1970	1970	1975
Doctors				
Number	15,600	21,450	19,800	26,330*
Ratio to population	1 : 7,300	1 : 6,100	1 : 6,600	1 : 5,700
Medical Colleges	12	13	14	15
Hospital Beds				
Number	35,500	43,820*	48,300*	64,300
Ratio to population	1 : 3,200	1 : 3,000	1: 2,700	1 : 2,400
Nurses				
Number	3,600	5,400	5,400	13,840*
Ratio to beds	1:10	1 : 8	1:9	1:5
to population	1 : 31,600	1 : 24,400	1 : 24,400	1 : 11,200
Rural Health Centres				
Number	125	186	672	1,150
Population covered in millions	7.5	11	40	69
Lady Health Visitors				
Number	1,047	2,143	2,750	5,321
Ratio to female population	1: 52,500	1 : 29,700	1 : 23,200	1 : 13,600
Training Centres for				
Nurses	18	27	24	—
Lady Health Visitors	8	8	10	10
T.B. Clinics	96	100+	181	246

Population estimates used, in millions as of July in each year:
1965—total 113.7, female 55; 1970—total 131.7, female 63.7:
1975—total 151.0, female 73.5.

*Rounded.

Sources : Ministry of Health, Labour and Social Welfare, *Pakistan Economic Survey*, 1970, and population figures from the demographic projections under Assumption III, Table XII, in the Chapter on Land and People.

Family Planning

As in other developing and densely populated countries, in Pakistan too, population control is recognized as an essential requirement for substantial improvements in the existing low standards of living and an adequate growth in per capita income. This need was noted in the First Plan, although it greatly underestimated the annual population growth at 1.4 per cent, as against an actual growth rate of over 2.2 per cent—the population having increased from about 81 million in 1951 to 101 million in 1961. (Both figures belong to the series worked out by the Planning Commission after adjustments for under-counting in the census figures, whose annual percentage increase is, however, about the same at 2.17 per cent). The Plan's allocation for family planning was, perhaps accordingly, a mere token of Rs. 500,000, and little was done in the course of the Plan period beyond some pilot work.

The Second Plan included a major allocation of Rs. 30.5 million for family planning, and stressed the fact that unless the birth rate declined with the decline of the death rate achieved through public health measures, rapid population growth would nullify most of the development efforts by raising the net cost of supporting the population and curtailing investment resources in favour of current consumption. The Second Plan's family planning scheme included provisions for a national research institute of family planning and for training doctors, lady health visitors, nurses and midwives to run 4,000 family planning clinics. Achievements, however, fell far below expectations, largely because (a) the allocation was not sufficient to finance adequate supplies and distribution, (b) motivational barriers of families were not tackled effectively, and (c) the programme was administered as a normal function of the existing health services, with the result that the

already overburdened staff could not give sufficient attention to family planning. At this point, estimates of annual population growth varied from 2.43 to 2.6 per cent in Government calculations, while the Pakistan Institute of Development Economics placed it at a minimum of 2.91 per cent. (Also see section on Demography in the chapter on Land and People).

In the Third Plan, family planning was for the first time treated as a separate category and given high priority with a total revised allocation of Rs. 274 million. In doing so, it said, "Clearly, if the increases of per capita income postulated in the Perspective Plan are to be achieved, a decline in fertility rates is a necessary condition. The availability of modern medicines and related health facilities has been and continues to be the main determinant of the dramatic decline in mortality rates. The supply of contraceptive devices and extension of family planning facilities is similarly called for if fertility rates are to be contained." It also adds, however, that apart from cost factors and effectiveness of contraceptives and their use, a major problem is presented by social resistance, which must be overcome and replaced by a positive motivation for family planning.

Of the total population of about 131 million in 1971, some 20 per cent of the working force is underemployed or unemployed, 48 per cent of the population is below the age of 15, and 80 per cent of those over 5 years of age are illiterate. Amenities of life, particularly housing facilities in urban areas, are short of basic requirements. Pressure on productive resources is high, the average land-holding in East Pakistan being as low as 3.5 acres. The density of population in East Pakistan is nearly 1,300 per square mile, in a total area of 55,126 square miles. The rate of population growth is estimated

Family Planning consultation at a centre in Karachi.





Family Planning Seminar for final year students of Rajshahi Medical College.

at between 2.7 and 3 per cent per annum, the mortality rate having come down to less than 1.4 per cent (or according to a higher estimate, 2.0 per cent) as against 3.0 per cent in 1950. Recently, the Planning Commission has also revised its population growth estimates in line with various projections prepared by demographers; and in the Fourth Five-Year Plan it is stated that "... the population of Pakistan in recent years has been growing at around 3 per cent per annum, at which rate it will double itself in 23 years. This demonstrates the enormity of the population problem facing Pakistan." Incidentally, it also involves a revision of previous population and per capita estimates, the new population figures for 1964/65 and 1969/70 respectively being raised to about 114.6 million and 132.8 million.

The objective of the family planning programmes has been to reduce the annual birth rate from 50 to 40 per thousand during 1965-70, in order to correct the imbalance in the age structure of the population, to attain self-sufficiency in food, and to maintain the planned level of increase in per capita income. This was to be achieved by covering some 20 million fertile couples under the programme by 1970. Continuation of the programme after 1970 was expected to halve the birth rate by 1985, i.e. by the end of the Perspective Plan.

Appropriate machinery was created to execute the programme. There now is a separate Family Planning Division in the Ministry of Health and Social Welfare, under the charge of a Joint Secretary, which is concerned with policy-making, co-ordination of activities, evaluation of results and

research. Provincial Family Planning Boards, headed by the respective Provincial Health Ministers, are responsible for the implementation of the programme. There is a similarly organized Board in each district which guides and helps the Executive/Publicity Officer in taking physical steps to carry out the programme :

(a) setting up clinics and mobile units with technical, administrative and publicity personnel and material;

(b) appointment of doctors, health visitors and midwives as family planning workers for tehsils and sub-divisions in the district;

(c) arrangement of suitable facilities for the training programmes fixed by the Provincial Boards ;

(d) registration of village *dais* (midwives) and all available private medical practitioners for supplying contraceptives and for coil insertions;

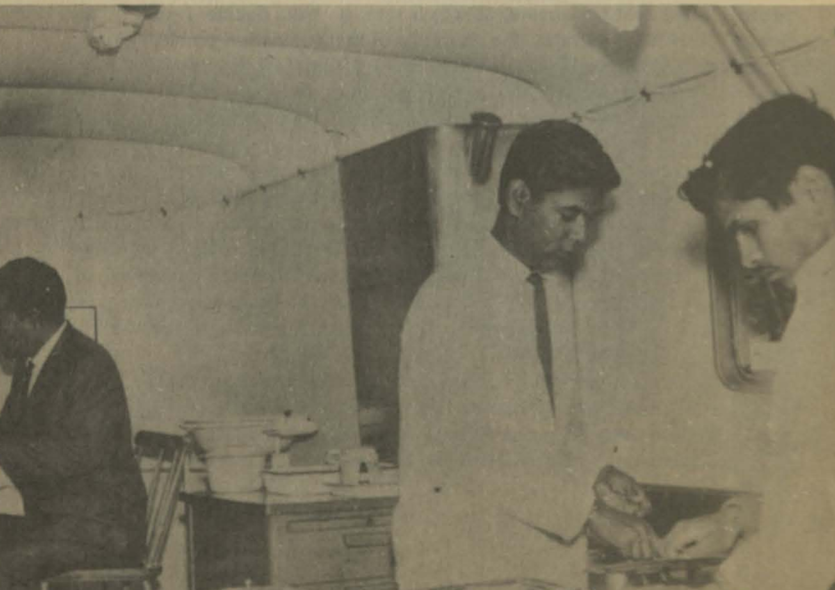
(e) distribution of conventional contraceptives through shops, *dais* and hospitals ;

(f) collection of statistics and information for the evaluation of results.

Thana (sub-divisional) Councils in East Pakistan and Union Councils in West Pakistan have carried out such of the foregoing functions as are entrusted to them by the District Family Planning Boards.

Under the District Executive/Publicity Officers there are several Family Planning Officers in West Pakistan and Thana Family Planning Officers in East Pakistan. They publicize family planning, organize motivational activities and assist the village *dais* and other agents in the their work. The *dais* (approximately 35 under each Family Planning Officer) are the chief

Interior of a mobile family planning clinic in West Pakistan.



direct instrument in the family planning programme. They contact fertile couples, distribute contraceptives, and motivate the couples by removing doubts and hesitations.

There are at present some 55,000 trained men and women engaged in the implementation of the programme, of which about 2,500 are full-time employees. These include 1,000 Family Planning Officers in West Pakistan and 400 Thana Family Planning Officers, each with three assistants, in East Pakistan, 20,000 *dais* in East Pakistan, 18,000 in West Pakistan and 12,000 *dais* now working as full-time Family Planning Workers; a total of 685 full-time doctors (37) and paramedicals and 2,870 part-time for IUD insertions and vasectomies. In addition, 44,000 agents have been registered to sell contraceptives. The expansion of clinical services now under way will soon make these available at 318 full-time clinics in West Pakistan and 322 in East Pakistan, and at 551 part-time clinics in East Pakistan and 650 in West Pakistan.

By the end of the fifth year (1969/70) of the Third Plan, the full-allocation for family planning had been utilized, including an actual expenditute of Rs. 186.1 million by the middle of 1969—Rs. 82.9 million in East and Rs. 103.2 million in West Pakistan—and a budget allocation of Rs. 88.1 million for 1969/70 (An additional amount of Rs. 82.15 million—bringing the total to Rs. 356.35 million—in foreign assistance is also estimated to have been utilized.) And as the following Table shows, with two exceptions, all other physical targets were met or surpassed. On the other hand, it is estimated that these measures have not succeeded in bringing down the birth rate to much below 45 per thousand; and it is now the aim of the Fourth Plan to reduce it to at least 40 per thousand, with an expanded and streamlined programme which has been allocated Rs.695 million.

TABLE I

Progress of Family Planning Programme, 1965-70

Description	Unit	East Pakistan	West Pakistan	Total	Third Plan Target	Percentage Achievement
Districts covered	No.	17	38	55	55	100
Couples practising	Millions	2.6	2.3	4.9	5.0	98
I.U.D. insertions[1]	,,	1.5	1.8	3.3	3.0	110
Sterilizations[1]	,,	1.2	0.1	1.3	0.9	144
Sale of conventional contraceptive units	,,	283.3	381.1	664.4	1,152.5	58
District Executive Officers	No.	17	38	55	55	100
Family Planning Officers	No.	393	995	1,388	1,428	97
Dais[2]	No.	19,870	18,130	38,000	50,000	76
Full-time Clinics manned by Family Planning workers :						
(a) Urban	No.	37	70	107	37	288
(b) Rural	No.	285	248	533	—	—
		322	318	640		
Part-time Clinics :						
(a) Urban	No.	88	372	460	—	—
(b) Rural[3]	No.	463	278	741	718	103
		551	650	1,201		

[1] Projected up to June 1970.

[2] 12,000 *dais* (midwives) have been converted into full-time family planning workers at the rate of 1 for 7 *Dais* in urban areas, and 2 *dais* to 1 chief male organizer in rural areas of East Pakistan.

[3] Full-time rural clinics are set up where no other health facilities are in existence.

Manpower

The Manpower situation of Pakistan is characterized by the two-fold problem of an over-all surplus of labour combined with shortages of trained and skilled workers in various specific fields. The surplus problem is the result of a high rate of population growth which outstrips the absorptive capacity of even a rapidly growing economy. The surplus manifests itself mainly in the form of underemployment, rather than outright unemployment, in the sense that although most of the labour force is employed to some extent, the total amount of work done is far below what it is able and willing to do. The proportion of the labour force recorded as totally unemployed thus comes to only a little over one per cent, but if manpower that is only partially employed is added to this, the proportion of unemployment plus underemployment rises to about 18 per cent.

Since employment outside the agricultural sector is limited by the current size and the rate of expansion of the non-agricultural sectors, much of the additional labour force is obliged to find employment on the land, adding to the underemployment of the labour-saturated agricultural sector. Even so, West Pakistan, with its great agricultural potential and large expanses of uncultivated but cultivable land, may be able to absorb the additional agricultural labour force with a continuing increase in the level of productivity and income per head. But in East Pakistan, where the population density is already among the highest in the world and the prospects of increasing cultivable land extremely limited, major increases in the agricultural labour force present a very serious problem in terms of per capita production and income (also see chapter on Agriculture).

The other problem of shortages of specific types of skilled manpower is also acute, because these are particularly critical in precisely those occupations which are of central importance to the process of socio economic development. While wide-spread illiteracy and shortages of vocational training facilities are both largely responsible for this situation, the mix of the educational provision and output is also out of tune with the mix of the economy's requirement, thus introducing the additional problem of education unemployment into the total situation. In comparison with general education courses that produce literacy and some general knowledge but no viable economic skills, adequate vocational training require more specialized and skilled human resources for organizing, teaching and training, as well as more financial resources to furnish both the higher salaries required for a capable vocational teaching force and the comparatively expensive teaching equipment and materials needed for various vocational courses. Under conditions of low per capita investment in education and training, this naturally comes to mean that the output from general education is overwhelmingly larger than from vocational and technical education. In addition, within even the small provision for vocational education and training, to maximize its coverage, resources are spread so thin, both quantitatively and qualitatively, that its products do not in fact acquire the skills that it is intended to create ! Educated unemployment—which is becoming an increasingly serious problem —is thus the result of both a very large and rapidly growing output of educated but unskilled young people and a smaller, yet probably increasing, number of young people who come out of a vocational stream of education and training but still lack the viable skills this should have developed in them. This is what the Fourth Plan describes as "bottlenecks in the skills formation process", which involves "the in-service transformation of newly educated manpower into occupationally skilled workers".

More may, however, be involved in that there is an alternative concept and system of vocational training which combines it with apprenticeship in such a way that the "newly educated manpower" is in fact occupationally skilled manpower. This requires the close co-operation of all economic sectors for which training processes are instituted, so as to provide for both a period of apprenticeship preceding the vocational training and alternating sessions of theory and practice in the final stages of vocational training. Without some effective system of this type, vocational education—as has happened quite frequently in past world-wide experience—may turn out to involve a huge wastage of human and financial resources. The level of general education—with or without some basic vocational orientation, as distinct from vocational training in the proper sense—which may be imparted before introducing vocational training depends on the level of investment in education that a country is able and prepared to make in per capita terms. However, since on a universal or over-all basis general education can initially be provided only up to grade V, all the more reason that this should be followed by a period of apprenticeship in some economic sector before entry into a corresponding stream of vocational training. Some recognition is given to this in the emphasis the Fourth Plan lays on the

development of apprenticeship training and long-term apprenticeship schemes, which will have to be well integrated within the over-all system of education and its planned development in order to be effective. (See section on Employment and Labour Training Services, and also chapter on Education and Training.)

The Labour Force and its Deployment : According to the 1961 census, 30.2 million persons, or about one-third of the population, constituted the civilian labour force of the country; that is to say, 30.2 million people were over 10 years old (including those aged 10) and either employed or looking for work. Of these, over 26.4 million, or 87.5 per cent, were male and the rest female. For subsequent years, as Table II shows, the low proportion of female participation in the labour force remains a continuing feature, rising only insignificantly from 12.5 per cent in 1960/61 to 13.1 per cent in 1974/75. A little over 306,000, or 1 per cent of the labour force, were not working but registered as looking for work. Of these, over 8,000 were women.

According to the latest estimates of the Planning Commission, the labour force increased by about 6.7 million between 1960/61 and 1964/65, which, however, probably includes some compensation for undercounting in the 1961 Census (the Planning Commission estimate for the total population in 1960/61 is 101.45 million against the census figure of 93.72 million).

In 1961, a little under three-quarters of the total civilian labour force were engaged in agriculture, of which 72.2 per cent were tillers of the soil, and 23.5 per cent were agriculturists other than tillers. Women's participation in the labour force was the highest in agricultural pursuits, 85.3 per cent of all women in the labour force being active in this field. Province-wise, the percentage of the agricultural labour force to the civilian labour force was much higher in East Pakistan (91.6 per cent) than in West Pakistan (70.45 per cent). Agricultural employment in both wings of the country was almost entirely confined to rural areas. The highest percentage of the agricultural labour force claimed by a city was 3.25 per cent.

As shown in Table III, the net addition to the labour force between 1964/65 and 1969/70 amounts to 5.6 million, or an average annual increase of over 1.1 million; and by 1974/75, it is anticipated that it will rise by 6.5 million at an average annual rate of 1.3 million. The latter increase in the Fourth Plan period comprises an addition of 3.9 million to the labour force in East Pakistan (about 780,000 per year) and of 2.6 million in West Pakistan (about 520,000) per year. The significantly more rapid increase in East Pakistan compounds its land pressure problem, and therefore has a direct bearing on its per capita productivity and income—and the growing disparity between the two wings of the country. In other words, East Pakistan's economy will have to grow at a faster rate than West Pakistan's, not only to reduce the growing income disparity, but also to absorb its more rapidly increasing labour force—which, in fact, are of course closely interlinked factors, and under the given circumstances form two facets of the same total problem.

As indicated in Table II and III, the deployment of the labour force

is changing steadily, with the number employed in manufacturing and mining increasing fairly rapidly at nearly 50 per cent in the 10 years between 1964/65 and 1974/75, while the number in agriculture is anticipated to increase by only 11.5 per cent. In terms of relative deployment, this means that over this period the labour force in agriculture is reduced from 73.81 per cent to 69.64 per cent, and in manufacturing and mining increased from 8.80 per cent to 9.93 per cent, while increases for the remaining sectors vary from 17.39 per cent to 20.43 per cent. However, in absolute terms the growth of the labour force in agriculture still remains predominant at 6.7 million as against 3.07 million in the services sector; 1.59 million in manufacturing and mining ; and 0.46 million in construction.

The percentage of those wholly unemployed and looking for work is anticipated to increase slightly from an estimated 1.1 per cent of the labour force in 1970 to 1.2 per cent in 1975. Most of this increase is anticipated outside the agricultural sector, concomitant with the rising trend in the non-agricultural labour force and its usual higher unemployment ratio—in the 1961 census only 0.2 per cent of the agricultural labour force was recorded as wholly unemployed, as against 3.3 per cent of the non-agricultural labour force. However, the problem of invisible or disguised unemployment and underemployment is mainly a problem of the agricultural sector, with its seasonal fluctuations of activity and relatively unproductive labour intensive procedures of cultivation. With the increase in the agricultural labour force indicated above, agricultural underemployment is likely to remain at least constant in percentage terms, and will almost certainly grow in terms of absolute numbers.

This means that in order to achieve the Fourth Plan objective of increasing annual per capita income by over 3 per cent per year, productivity in terms of value added per worker will naturally have to be increased in agriculture as well as in other economic sectors, and this in turn will be possible only in so far as the increased production realized through improved methods of cultivation and the judicious, outstrips the effects of increased underemployment—that is its tendency to lower per capita productivity.

Estimates of the numerical distribution of the civilian labour force according to levels and types of educational attainment are given in Table V. As is to be expected from the low literacy figures for the total population as a whole, the labour force is also predominantly illiterate, with the relative incidence of illiteracy decreasing very gradually from about 86 per cent in 1965 to 82 per cent in 1970 and 76 per cent in 1975. Of the literate labour force of about 7.75 million in 1970, 6.02 million, or 77.8 per cent, were within the first level, having at most completed the first nine grades of schooling. Of the remainder, about 18.1 per cent, or 1.4 million, had higher educational attainments up to a maximum of having completed grade XII (the Intermediate), and 4.1 per cent, or 320,000, held third level degrees or diplomas. Of the last top segment, no less than 67 per cent fell into the category of arts and science degree holders (mostly unspecialized), with another 15.4 per cent belonging to the fields of law and commerces, 8.4 per cent to education, and 9.2 per cent to the fields of engineering, agriculture, medicine and other subject

areas. In the 10-year period between 1965 and 1975, increases in the first, second and third level of the labour force are anticipated in the order of 50, 45 and 75 per cent respectively, as against an increase of little over 17 per cent in the illiterate labour force; so that even in absolute terms, the literate labour force would increase a little more rapidly by 6.67 million as against the increase of 5.30 million in the illiterate labour force. However, no major shifts in the composition of the third level labour force is anticipated beyond some increase in the proportion of commerce graduates as against a decrease in the percentages of law and other professional graduates. In specific terms, the percentages of (a) general arts/science (specialized higher degrees constituting a minute proportion of the total), (b) education, (c) law, (d) commerce, and (e) engineering, agriculture, medicine and other subject area degree and diploma holders are to change from (a) 67.21, (b) 8.1, (c) 7.4, (d) 6.2, and (e) 11.1 per cent in 1965 to (a) 66.2, (b) 8.6, (c) 4.8, (d) 11.3, and (e) 9.1 per cent in 1975.

Manpower Policy and Planning : Broadly speaking, the objectives of manpower policy enunciated in the Fourth Plan are "to increase employment, to reduce the growth of unemployment and underemployment, to increase labour productivity and to meet the present shortage of and growing demand for skilled manpower. In other words, the aim is to balance supply and demand, over-all as well as for specific categories of manpower." In accordance with what is now the generally accepted practice, the Plan views the development of manpower resources as an investment in human capital that will ultimately contribute to a faster rate of economic growth. Towards these ends, the manpower policy is intended to co-ordinate sectoral development programmes with a direct or indirect impact on the manpower situation, including, in particular, agriculture, industry, rural development and urban works programmes, labour policy and services, as well as education and training in all its forms. On the last count, the Fourth Plan, apart from an improved quality of education and a better functional co-ordination between it and actual requirements, lays special stress on developing in-service training facilities. Proposed training levies on employers and the setting up of a machinery for administering in service training activities financed by such levies, as pointed out by the Plan, should help to promote in-service training programmes, especially in the form of apprenticeship training. Finally, family planning should in the long run also help to reduce the rapid rate at which the labour force is at present growing, and thus ease the problems of both unemployment and per capita productivity.

The practical formulation and implementation of specific manpower policies has in the past faced the two-fold problem of inadequacies of manpower data as well as of planning and administrative machinery. Recognizing this situation, the Second and Third Plans proposed various administrative steps to deal with the situation, including the establishment of a high-level interministerial policy-making National Manpower Council. According to the Fourth Plan, this Council, set up in 1962, "has, however, not been able to function effectively . . . There are several reasons for this situa-

tion. There is still wide dispersal of efforts and energies in the field of manpower planning and development, and much of the effort lacks a sense of direction and purpose. The statistical base for manpower planning is poor. There is considerable inconsistency and unreliability in vital data. Existing arrangements for periodical review and assessment of the manpower situation or for follow-up programmes in terms of national objectives and targets are also inadequate. The whole technique of manpower planning is new and there is a great shortage of professional staff and facilities. New arrangements are therefore required which should be based on proper appreciation of the functions and shortcomings of the present set-up."

During the Third Plan period, an attempt was made to strengthen the manpower planning machinery under the UNDP/ILO Manpower Planning Project, with US AID also providing some assistance to East Pakistan under a Skilled Manpower Research Project. Recently, a National Commission on Manpower and Education was established in August 1968; and although this ceased to exist a year later without publishing its report, it has had the effect of focussing attention on the importance of correlating manpower development and education, of assembling and analysing a considerable amount of data, and of initiating certain studies on manpower development and utilization. But to meet continuing needs and overcome present inadequacies, the Fourth Plan considers it urgent to overhaul the existing set-up and enable it to work effectively towards the achievement of the following basic manpower planning objectives ;

(i) To evolve and determine manpower policies concerned with recruitment, training, use and conservation of manpower resources in co-operation with major agencies concerned either with the production or utilization of manpower.

(ii) To produce short-term and long-range operational programmes for the development and utilization of manpower.

(iii) To prepare manpower plans at the national and provincial levels for incorporation in Annual, Five-Year and Perspective Plans.

(iv) To undertake a continuous review of manpower situations in various sectors of the economy, identify the imbalances in manpower supply and demand relationships, and recommend adjustments and remedial actions by concerned agencies.

(v) To develop basic data and statistics for sound manpower planning on a continuing basis and to promote comprehensive research and studies."

For these purposes, the Plan indicates, a small but effective unit at the Centre must be adequately supported by manpower planning machinery at the Provincial, regional and local levels, both in relation to the planning process, including the gathering of data, and to its operational implementation. Moreover, at each of these levels it is also essential that co-ordination between different divisions and departments related to manpower planning should be maintained on a continuing basis through across-the-board manpower agencies, at least at the Provincial, if not also at the Divisional level.

Conditions of Work: The terms of employment for agricultural labour are generally governed by tradition and by labour availability. As yet no specific legislation covers this class of worker, but the Trade Union and the Industrial Labour Disputes Laws are applicable to them by implication. Also, the West Pakistan Land Reforms Ordinance, 1959, has provided considerable security for tenants. The 1959 Ordinance requires the ground for ejectment to be first established in a revenue court before ejectment proceedings can be started.

Industrial and commercial workers, terms of employment and conditions of service are regulated by Acts and Ordinances enacted in East and West Pakistan (of which no less than 12 have been enacted since July 1965), terms and conditions of service being regulated by law. Modifications can be made, in West Pakistan, only by a collective agreement between employers and trade unions, and, in East Pakistan, after being approved by an inspector appointed by the Government. (Also see sections on Labour Policy up to 1969 and New Labour Policy below.)

Wages: These are generally subject to collective bargaining, and so they differ from one industry or occupation to another. However, to protect labourers in a weak bargaining position or those who do not have an organized trade union, the Minimum Wages Ordinance was promulgated in 1961. Under this, the Provincial Governments regulate wages in industries on the recommendation of wage boards, which include representatives of employers and workers. New minimum wages have been announced by Government in its 1969 policy statement (see below).

An important measure for increasing industrial production was taken when the Companies' Profits (Workers' Participation) Act, 1968, was passed by the National Assembly during the 1968/69 Budget Session. To streamline its operation and ensure the fulfilment of its purposes, the Act was supplemented by the Companie's Profit (Workers' Participation) Rules, 1969. The scheme applies to all companies engaged in industrial undertakings which employ 100 or more workers in any shift at any time during a year, whose paid up capital on the last day of its accounting year is Rs. 2 million or more, and the value of whose fixed assets is Rs. 4 million or more. The Act makes it obligatory for every company to which the Act applies to establish a worker's participation fund and to pay into it a sum equivalent to 2.5 per cent of its profits during each year. The Fund is managed by a Board of Trustees. In case of failure to comply with the Act, a company is liable to a penalty fine of up to Rs. 10,000, and in case of continuing failure, a further fine of Rs. 1,000 for every day of such continuing failure. Every worker whose average monthly emoluments do not exceed Rs. 1,000 is eligible for the benefits of the scheme and to participate in the Fund.

The average annual pay received by an industrial worker was Rs. 1,395 in 1965, which has been raised by the New Labour Policy, but detailed new statistics are not available yet. The average by industrial groups in 1965 was as follows :

(Rounded rupees)

Industry	1965
Textile	1,348
(a) Cotton	1,352
(b) Other Textiles	1,341
Engineering	1,498
Minerals, Metals	1,646
Chemicals and Dyes	1,261
Paper and Printing	1,628
Wood, Stone and Glass	1,176
Skins and Hides	1,708
Ordnance	1,504
Mint	2,048
Miscellaneous	1,458
All Industries	1,395

Source : Labour and Social Welfare Division.

Hours : On average, a factory worker in Pakistan is required to work nine hours a day and 48 hours a week. For children the daily average is five hours. Women work as long as the men. A worker is entitled to extra pay for overtime at double the ordinary rate. Double employment and overlapping of shifts are, however, prohibited. The working hours of road transport workers are governed by the Road Transport Workers Ordinance, 1961.

The following table gives average weekly working hours as last surveyed in 1964:

Percentage of workers	Hours of work
4.83	less than 24
7.99	24—31
10.04	32—39
18.69	40—47
20.33	48—55
38.12	56 and above

Source : Central Statistical Office.

The highest, 56 hours and above group, includes agricultural labour whose hours of work are not regulated by law.

Several statutory provisions ensure the safety of workers. In West Pakistan, working conditions and safety measures for workers in factories are governed by the Factories Act, 1934, and in East Pakistan by the East Pakistan Factories Act, 1965. The Acts provide for the regulation of such measures as precaution against fire, means of escape, fencing, specification

of defective parts or test of stability of the building, safety of building and machinery, work near machinery in motion, and prohibition of employment of women and children near cotton ginners.

The Acts also empower the Provincial Governments to make rules requiring additional provisions for health and safety measures for workers, for the provision of shelters during rest pauses, and of canteens in factories employing more than a specified number of workers.

For the safety of transport workers, the hours of driving and rest periods of the driver are regulated by the Road Transport Workers Ordinance, 1961.

The Tea Plantation Ordinance prohibits employment of children and women at irregular hours.

Inspection of factories is regularly carried out by Government inspectors to ensure that conditions for the safety of workers are being observed.

Health and Welfare : The Factories Act also lays down conditions for the health and welfare of employees. These include cleanliness of work rooms, adequate ventilation and suitable lighting, avoidance of over crowding, proper sanitation, protection of workers form harmful dust, and provision of drinking-water and first aid.

The Tea Plantation Labour Ordinance, 1962, ensures reasonable sanitary, recreational, educational, medical and housing facilities to plantation workers. A Labour Welfare Division exists at Srimangal in East Pakistan, which is responsible for medical, educational and recreational facilities for 150,000 tea plantation workers.

A Coal Miners' Labour Fund has been existence since 1967, and provides numerous welfare facilities for coal mine workers. Two hospitals with mobile dispensaries and one welfare centre equipped with qualified staff are functioning. Educational facilities have also been provided for the children of workers.

A seamen's hostel with a capacity for 280 seamen has been sent up at Chittagong. Another at Karachi Port is to be established shortly, and it will have accommodation for 300 seamen. For seamen's children, Government grants Rs. 10,000 in annual scholarships.

Labour welfare centres, as well as welfare centres for Government employees, exist in important cities in both wings of Pakistan. These centres offer stipends to poor employees' children, maintain libraries and meet other incidental needs of workers and their families.

Social Security : The West Pakistan Social Security Ordinance, 1965, was promulgated in place of the earlier legislation of the Central Government to similar effect (Employees Social Insurance Ordinance, 1962) and put into operation in March 1967. This requires employers and employees to contribute 6 per cent of wages in the ratio of 2 : 1, to provide insurance cover for the employees against industrial injury, maternity and sickness. The East Pakistan Government is also expected to promulgate a similar ordinance.

Initially, social security was introduced in the textile industry, and institutions were set up at Karachi, Lyallpur Hyderabad, Multan, Rawalpindi and Peshawar, where the textile industry is concentrated. These institutions collected contributions from employers and the labourers. In the case of workers earning less than Rs. 2 a day, the entire contribution had to be made by the employer. Since July, 1968, the scheme has been extended to all industries in the cities of Lyallpur, Rawalpindi, Peshawar, Nowshera, Hasanabdal, Lawrencepur, Hyderabad, Multan, Kotri and Karachi. By the end of June 1969, the total numbers of registered employers and employees under the scheme amounted to 1,131 and 385,043 respectively.

Holidays : Factory workers generally are entitled to 10 paid annual holidays, while children get four extra days. Workers are also entitled to 10 days casual and six days' medical leave and another 10 days of festival holidays. Transport workers under the Road Transport Workers Ordinance are entitled to 14 days holiday on full pay after one year's continuous service or to seven days after six months' service.

Trade Unions : Although the trade union movement in the Subcontinent dates back to 1890, its proper development took place after the First World War, when, due to rising prices, low wages and high profits, industrial unrest became widespread. At Independence, Pakistan began with very few industries and a total industrial labour force of not more than 450,000. Its trade unions were therefore few, and even these were not well organized. The number of registered trade unions in 1947 was 75, most of them in West Pakistan. At the end of 1958, the number had reached 621, with a membership of over 337,000.

In September 1967, there were 1,125 registered unions with a total membership of 519,033, but in 1969 it was estimated that the total trade union membership still did not cover more than 5 to 10 per cent of the total industrial and commercial labour force. A significance fact is that the membership of these unions had remained stationary within a fixed range almost throughout the fifties, although there was considerable increase in the number of trade unions; the new unions were thus no more than splinters of the old ones.

Most of the unions are situated in the bigger cities and towns, such as Dacca, Chittagong, Khulna, Karachi and Lahore, because they are the main industrial towns.

The unions are usually organized within individual establishments. The development of unionism either on the basis of craft or industry is not yet a common feature.

The formation and recognition of trade unions is regulated in West Pakistan by the Trade Unions Act, 1926, as modified by the Trade Unions (Amendment) Ordinance, 1960, and the West Pakistan Trade Unions Act, 1968; and, in East Pakistan, by the East Pakistan Trade Unions Act, 1965.

Under the West Pakistan Act, any seven or more members of a trade

union can apply for the registration of a trade union by application to the Registrar of Trade Unions appointed by the Provincial Government. Registered trade unions and their officers and members cannot be proceeded against under the law relating to criminal conspiracy in respect of any agreement made between the members for the purpose of furthering any object of the trade union, as also in respect of any act done in contemplation or furtherance of any industrial dispute.

Registered trade unions are required to maintain account books and lists of members, both open to inspection by any member of the union. They must submit an annual return to the Provincial Government containing a statement of assets, liabilities, receipts and expenditures. The Trade Union Act provides that a trade union fulfilling conditions laid down by the Act must be recognized by the employer.

A list of unfair practices on the part of recognized trade unions and employers has also been laid down in the Act, the commitment of which may, on the part of workers, result in the cancellation of recognition and, in the case of an employer, in punishment.

The East Pakistan Trade Unions Act makes almost similar provisions, with the exception that (i) a trade union shall not be registered unless it has a minimum membership of 100 workers or 10 per cent of the total strength employed in the establishment or industry; and (ii) for the purposes of recognition, in the case of refusal by the employers, the trade union shall approach the Registrar of Trade Unions, as against the Industrial Labour Court provided for in the West Pakistan law.

All industrial workers, whether in Government or private establishments, are covered by these laws. Government servants are, however, excluded from their purview. The formation of associations by them is regulated by separate administrative instructions issued by the Government.

Federations : While trade unions may be purely local, most of them are affiliated to central federations, such as the All-Pakistan Confederation of Labour, the All-Pakistan Federation of Labour, the Pakistan Mazdoor Federation.

Disputes : For a long time, industrial disputes in Pakistan were governed by the Industrial Disputes Act of 1947. The process for the settlement of disputes under the law was lengthy and rigid, and placed the employers in a more advantageous position than the worker. This Act was, therefore, repealed and replaced by the Industrial Disputes Ordinance, 1959, and the East Pakistan Labour Disputes Act, 1965.

Now the new Labour Policy seeks further (a) to simplify the resolution of disputes and (b) to assure free but organized collective bargaining. (See below.)

Labour Policy up to 1969 : Labour was a concurrent subject until 1962, when the new Constitution made it a Provincial subject. As such, all legislation in this sphere became the responsibility of the Provincial Govern-

ments, except for matters relating to subjects enumerated in the Third Schedule to the Constitution, which are exclusively the concern of the Central Government. The Central Government, however, has the responsibility of keeping watch over the labour situation for the purpose of co-ordination and for meeting international obligations.

The Government that came to power in 1958 announced its revised labour policy in 1959, which embodied, *inter alia*, the following :

- — sound relationship between employers and employees;
- — industrial peace;
- — provision of social amenities to workers of all categories;
- — growth of healthy trade unionism ;
- — reduction of unemployment in the country;
- — research and collection of information concerning working and living conditions of workers;
- — encouragement of social welfare amenities in a co-operative manner; welfare cesses being imposable on industrial and commercial establishments for this purpose;
- — welcoming technical assistance in the field of labour from friendly countries;
- — basing the labour policy of the Government on ILO conventions and other recommendations ratified by Pakistan.

Pakistan inherited a substantial code of labour laws from British India. New laws enacted in pursuance of the revised policy included the Coal Mines (Fixation of Wages) Ordinance, 1960; the Road Transport Workers Ordinance, 1961; the Minimum Wages Ordinance, 1961; the Tea Plantation Labour Ordinance, 1952; the Apprenticeship Ordinance, 1962; the Employees Social Insurance Ordinance, 1962; and the West Pakistan Employees Social Security Ordinance, 1965. Labour laws enacted since July 1965 include: the East Pakistan Inland Transport (Regulation of Employment) Act, 1965; the East Pakistan Factories Act, 1965; the East Pakistan Trade Unions Act, 1965; the East Pakistan Shops and Establishments Act, 1965; the East Pakistan Employment of Labour (Standing Orders) Act, 1965; the Factories (West Pakistan Amendment) Ordinance, 1966; the West Pakistan Industrial Disputes Ordinance (No. IV), 1968; the West Pakistan Trade Unions Ordinance (No.V) 1968; the West Pakistan Industrial and Commercial Employment (Standing Orders) (No. VI), 1968.

Two new laws were enacted by the Central Government in June 1967 : (1) the Excise Duty on Minerals (Labour Welfare) Act, 1967, and (2) the Mines (Amendment) Act, 1967. The first repeals the Coal Mines Labour Welfare Fund Act, 1947. It empowers the Government to levy excise duty on such minerals as coal, limestone, gypsum, sandstone, stone and silica, at the rate of between fifty paisas and one rupee per ton, to finance measures for promoting the welfare of labour employed in the mining industry. The Mines (Amendment) Act, 1967, was enacted in order to give effect to an ILO Convention ratified by Pakistan.

New Labour Policy : On July 5, 1969, the Government issued a new Labour

Policy, following a series of consultations with workers and employers, on lines matching the broadest possible consensus between the parties concerned and largely agreeing with the conclusions of the Tripartite Labour Conference held in 1969. In his foreword to this policy statement, Air Marshal Nur Khan indicated that "The Government believes that this Policy will go a long way towards creating a partnership in which workers and employers can work together to achieve higher productivity to their mutual advantage. The Government is aware that the previous Labour Policies have failed because adequate machinery for their implementation has not existed. Every step will therefore be taken to ensure that this Policy is supported by the necessary machinery for its implementation."

The Government further recognizes that in the past "the worker has not had a fair deal", so that "in a period of growing prosperity and rapidly increasing production, the workers' real income and living conditions have remained static and in many cases have even deteriorated". Stressing that rapid economic growth is essential if the chains of poverty are to be broken, but that this can be meaningful and be further advanced only if workers, too, share the fruits of development, the policy statement adds that the industries in Pakistan are "among the most inefficient in the world. Equipped with modern machines and using advanced technology, their output per machine as well as per worker is low. Some of this low productivity is undoubtedly the result of external constraints like non-availability of raw materials or spare parts, but the major failure has been the failure of the management and workers to realize that they must work together for a higher standard of living." The New Labour Policy aims at rectifying this situation by bringing about improvements (a) in industrial relations and (b) in wages and welfare.

(a) *Industrial Relations* : With regard to these, the Government will encourage the development of a strong and representative trade union movement—whose present membership even the trade union leaders do not estimate to exceed 5 to 10 per cent of the entire industrial and commercial labour force. It will establish procedures to settle disputes arising out of matters of legal rights and contract through simple and expeditious adjudication by courts of law. On the other hand, the Government will also allow the resolution of other disputes between workers and employers through bilateral collective bargaining , including the workers' right to strike and the employers' right to lock-out, *subject to* prior procedures of compulsory bilateral negotiations, conciliation and arbitration efforts having failed, and a minimum strike or lock-out notice of 21 days having been duly given. Further, if after a strike or lock-out has lasted for more than 60 days, no settlement appears likely, the Government will have the discretion to prohibit it and refer it forward to an Industrial Tribunal consisting of representatives from Government, workers and employers. From the decision of this Tribunal there shall be no appeal. These principles of trade unionism and collective bargaining will apply to the public sector as much as to the private sector, except that strikes shall not be allowed in the Essential Services and may be prohibited by Government in the case of public utilities at any time that it may consider this necessary.

To facilitate the implementation of these objectives, there is to be a complete reorientation of Government machinery in order to eliminate administrative interference. Three separate services are to be constituted and respectively designated as the Registrar of Trade Unions, the Directorate of Inspection and Enforcement, and the Conciliation Service. No person shall hold office in more than one of these services. Additional Labour Courts to deal with conflicts arising out of matters of right are also to be constituted, and these shall use summary procedures to ensure a quick disposal of cases.

(b) *Minimum Wages* : The Government has fixed the following rates of minimum wages for unskilled workers in industrial and commercial undertakings employing 50 or more workers: Karachi area—Rs. 140 per month; industrial areas (as defined) excluding Karachi—Rs.125 per month; other areas—Rs. 115 per month. These wages will incorporate all cash emoluments payable monthly before the introduction of the New Labour Policy. Employers will be allowed to make deductions up to specified amounts for housing and transport provided by them (ranging from Rs. 6.50 in rural areas to Rs. 12.50 in Karachi for housing and Rs. 1.00 to Rs. 5.00 respectively for transport). Minimum wages for the East Pakistan tea garden industry, in respect of a two-member family, range from Rs. 100 to Rs. 120.

Minimum Wage Boards will be strengthened and their working made more efficient. Their responsibilities shall include fixing minimum wages for workers in industries employing less than 50 workers and a periodic review of other wages.

Employees of Government Departments and public utilities, such as railways, telephone and telegraph, post offices and other autonomous organizations of the Central and Provincial Governments have been excluded from this wage policy ; in view of the differences in their terms of service etc., a separate wage policy for this sector is to be established by the Central and Provincial Governments.

Workers Welfare : Finally, the Government recognizes that the welfare of workers is not only the concern of employers and workers, but also of the Government, which must play an important role. A Workers' Welfare Fund was to be set up with a contribution of Rs.100 million in the fiscal year 1969/70 to construct low-cost housing and establish other facilities for workers. Additional resources are to be mobilized with the co-operation of the private sector. The Fund, which will be a revolving fund to which the Government shall make contributions annually, shall be administered by an autonomous board consisting of representatives from Government, employers and labour. The previous Government policy of encouraging the provision of housing by employers will also continue.

Employment and Labour Training Services : Agencies are required to bring job vacancies and suitable job applicants together. At the middle and higher levels, this service is provided mostly by newspapers. The gap in Pakistan is at the lower levels, and also for the assistance of young people who need guidance as well as employment.

The Government runs a number of employment exchanges whose activities are mainly devoted to lower category skilled jobs in urban areas. There are 21 exchanges of this type. In 1948, less than 5,000 persons were provided with jobs through such exchanges; now the yearly figure is in the region of 75,000.

By wage groups, the highest percentage of jobs provided has usually gone to the Rs. 61-100 groups, which include junior clerks, bearers, cooks and others in the unskilled or semi-skilled groups. This is followed by the Rs. 101-150 category, which in addition to skilled practitioners of the above occupations, comprises such people as typists, chauffeurs and shop assistants. The smallest is the Rs. 151 and above group.

The National Manpower Council runs a National Employment Bureau which helps such Pakistani residents in Pakistan or abroad as are technically qualified to get jobs both inside and outside the country. Two Youth Employment Services, one in each Province, were started in 1964 under the Directorate General of National Manpower. The guidance units have been handed over to the Provincial Governments for operation and expansion, and in East Pakistan a total of four Vocational Guidance and Youth Employment Units had been set up by the end of the Third Plan period.

To stimulate training activity, Provincial Labour Departments have set up 11 technical training centres, with the assistance of ILO, the United States, West Germany and the Netherlands, at Dacca (2), Chittagong, Narayanganj, Rajshahi, Karachi, Hyderabad, Gulberg, Hyderabad Moghalpura (in Lahore), Multan and Peshawar. They can each year train about 3,750 boys. At these centres, more than 30 trades are taught. There are two courses: one of 18 months for matriculates, and the other of 12 months for non-matriculates. Ten more such centres in each wing of the country are to be set up during the Fourth Plan period.

In addition, a number of Government polytechnics and technical institutes conduct trade training courses on a part-time basis.

The most important effort to train manpower is by apprenticeship and in-plant training. In 1955, the Government set up a Directorate of Apprenticeship Training and a National Council of Apprenticeship Training. The aim was to introduce in-plant apprenticeship training on a voluntary basis, but under this arrangement only 385 apprentices were trained, 270 in Karachi and 115 in Dacca. The Government therefore issued an Apprenticeship Ordinance in 1962, which ensures that 25 per cent of the total working hours are assigned to theoretical instruction for the benefit of apprentices, and that all enterprises employing 50 or more persons must take some apprentices.

The National Institute of Labour Administration Training was established in 1957. It organizes in-service training programmes for trade union workers as well as Central and Provincial Government officers dealing with labour problems. To supplement the work of the National Institute, two Industrial Relations Institutes, at Dacca and Lahore, have been set up by the Provincial Governments. The Fourth Plan recommends that the facilities of these institutes should be expanded and co-ordinated to make them more effective.

WPIDC has provided jobs to about 28,000 persons in its projects or companies in different technical and non-technical cadres. And its West Pakistan Institute of Management offers management training and development programmes for executives at all levels. During the past 15 years, about 20,000 managers, executives and supervisors have benefited from the activities of the Institute. It now offers 60 programmes each year throughout West Pakistan.

Apart from recommending the setting up of more technical training centres (bringing the total to 15 in East Pakistan and 16 in West Pakistan), the implementation of the Third Plan recommendations on mobile training units for rural self-employed artisans, the introduction of uniform standards and the inculcation of pride in skill and excellence of workmanship, the Fourth Plan, underlining the importance of developing skilled labour, also makes the following specific proposals for Pre-Service Training: Apprenticeship Training; a Long-Term Apprenticeship Scheme; and Improvement and Upgrading of Workers :

Pre-Service Training : The bulk of this training is provided by Government vocational/technical training institutions. It is comparatively expensive and contributes only a fraction of the country's growing requirements. Moreover, the training imparted in such institutions is not well co-ordinated with industry. There is, therefore, an urgent need to reorganize Government centres to meet the following objectives :

"(a) to train only in courses on sophisticated and advanced techniques and trades, which may not be possible for industrial units to organize at this stage of our development.

(b) To give a more practical bias to training. It would be better to attach trainees with appropriate factories for some months in a year.

(c) To act as model institutions for industry to copy."

Substantial augmentation in the output of Government training institutions, which is greatly needed, "should be achieved more through expansion of existing centres then by setting up new centres."

Apprenticeship Training: "Training programmes in the public sector alone cannot cater to the growing needs of industries, and unless industrial establishments in the private sector take upon themselves the responsibility of meeting their skill requirements, serious shortages in trained manpower are bound to continue. A beginning toward this end has been made in East and West Pakistan since 1966, through apprenticeship programmes under the Apprenticeship Ordinance of 1962 . . .

"There is an urgent need to reorganize the apprenticeship schemes so as to render the programme capable of creating an impact on the supply of skilled workers and to systematize it in order to develop greater co-operation between the Provincial Labour Departments and industrial establishments in this regard. The target for apprenticeship training should be 30,000 by 1975. Eight apprenticeship advisory offices may be set up in East Pakistan and six in West Pakistan."

The Plan also proposes that, after appropriate cost-benefit studies, an industrial training levy should be charged to all industrial employers, with a rebate given to those who organize suitable training programmes of their own. Furthermore, an alternative arrangement envisaged in this connection is to provide centres which give a year's theoretical instruction and elementary training, which may then be followed up with practical training by the employing organization.

Long-Term Apprenticeship Scheme : The aim of this scheme is to enrol boys of 12/13 between grades VI and VIII, who being unable to continue with their education would be drifting away, and give them a technically oriented education and training course of five years, in collaboration with industry. It is further recommended that the implementation of the Scheme should be phased out and undertaken in co-operation with organizations of labour and industry as well as such relevant Government Departments as Education, Labour and Defence.

Improvement and Upgrading of Workers : This task is at least as important as the training of raw hands, and for its adequate performance, the Fourth Plan recommends "close and co-ordinated action by industry and training institutions." Apart from organizing their own training programmes, industries "should be allowed to use the facilities available in the technical and vocational training centres through evening classes. The ideal will be to provide opportunities systematically for additional training and further education throughout each individual worker's career with the following aims :

"(i) upgrading of individual's qualifications to do his particular job better;

(ii) providing additional training to workers in order to enable them to advance to the next higher position and facilitate vertical mobility;

(iii) providing opportunities to workers to keep themselves abreast of technical advances."

"It is very important", the Plan adds, "to open avenues of training for young men already in employment and with potentials of advancement through special training arrangements outside the regular training institutions. This may be done by organizing evening classes for suitably educated and trained industrial workers who wish to improve their qualifications by working for a degree or diploma. Instructors for such courses could be drawn from industry on a part-time basis. Practical training needed on elementary training equipment not commonly used in industry should be arranged with the nearest engineering college or polytechnic institute A successful experiment of this type has already been carried out at the Pakistan Ordnance Factory, Wah . . . "

Financial support for this scheme may also be drawn from the proposed 'industrial training levy' mentioned above.

ILO Assistance : Pakistan has been receiving valuable assistance from the International Labour Organization, both in formulating policy and in implementing schemes.

Experts were assigned to Pakistan to study the organization and conditions of employment in general, conducting a survey of social security available to labour; to help draft the Social Security Ordinance, later promulgated by the Government; to investigate labour problems; to help develop training within industry and the training of labour officials for cottage industries; and to assist in other problems of a similar character.

In addition, ILO has awarded a large number of fellowships to officials of the Government of Pakistan and other persons for specialized training in various subjects, such as social security, employment service organization, manpower problems, vocational training, road safety, cottage industries, industrial safety, industrial relations, foreman traineeship, personnel management, industrial welfare, labour administration, and small-scale and cottage industries.

Equipment has been provided from time to time for Government training centres, such as that for the marine diesel trainin centre at Narayanganj.

A comparatively recent activity entrusted to ILO is to act as executing agency for various projects of the United Nations Special Fund in the field of labour. Under the technical assistance programme of the Special Fund, ILO is assisting the Government of Pakistan in training management executives, marine diesel engineers, and general engineers and instructors for the rapidly growing industry of East Pakistan.

ILO Conventions : Pakistan has so far ratified 29 ILO conventions (some of which date back to ILO's original establishment in 1919 as an autonomous part of the League of Nations)—a figure not yet achieved by any other country in Asia and the Middle East, except India. Some of the conventions ratified by Pakistan are those concerned with : freedom of association and protection of the right to organize (Convention of 1948); right to organize and to bargain collectively (1949); night work by women (1919); underground work by women (1935); hours of work and industry (1919); night work by young persons in industry (1919); labour inspection in industry and commerce (1947); and the forced labour convention (1930).

In consonance with ILO recommendations, a tripartite conference is held annually between representatives of labour, employers and the Central and Provincial Governments to discuss labour and management problems and Government policies.

Pakistan at ILO : Except for the period 1954-57, Pakistan has been continuously represented on the Governing Body of the International Labour Organization since 1951, either as a titular member or as a deputy member. It has also been elected twice to the presidency of the ILO Conference, in 1958 and 1965. Pakistan is a member of the Asian Advisory Committee and the Asian Regional Conference of the Organization. In addition, it is repre-

sented on the following three Industrial Committees of ILO, whose meetings are held periodically: (i) Textile Committee; (ii) Inland Transport Committee; (iii) Committee on Work in Plantations.

The Chief of the Agriculture and Food Section of the Planning Commission of Pakistan has been appointed a member of the Permanent Agricultural Committee of ILO. This Committee is an advisory body of experts, and its main functions are to facilitate the actions of ILO in respect of social problems and to act as ILO's liaison with the agricultural world.

TABLE I

Civilian Labour Force (10 Years and Over) According to 1961 Census

(Thousands)

	Both Sexes	Male	Female
Total Population	90,283*	47,517	42,766
Civilian Labour Force Working	29,900	26,146	3,754
Seeking work	306	298	8
Total Civilian Labour Force	30,206	26,444	3,762
Population 10 years and over not in Civilian Labour Force	28,354	4,869	23,485
Women doing household work	20,428	—	20,428
Others, including Defence Services personnel, persons living on pensions, rents, etc., and dependents	7,926	4,869	3,057

* In addition to non-Pakistanis, also excludes the population of Agencies and Added and Special Areas of the Frontier Regions of West Pakistan. Revised estimates for the Population in 1961 vary from 94.5 million to 101.45 million.

TABLE II

Civilian Labour Force (10 Years and Over) by Sex

(In millions)

Region/Sex	1965	1970	1975
Pakistan			
Both sexes	36.7	42.3	48.8
Male	31.9	36.7	42.4
Female	4.8	5.6	6.4
East Pakistan			
Both sexes	21.2	24.7	28.6
Male	17.9	20.8	24.1
Female	3.3	3.9	4.5
West Pakistan			
Both sexes	15.5	17.6	20.2
Male	14.0	15.9	18.3
Female	1.5	1.7	1.9

Source : Fourth Five-Year Plan.

TABLE III

Labour Force Employment and Unemployment, by Sector of Economy

Sector	1964/65	1969/70	1974/75
	(In thousand persons)		
Labour Force, total	*36,723*	*42,268*	*48,775*
Agriculture, forestry and fishing	26,880	30.162	33.640
Other sectors	9,843	12,106	15,135
Employed and underemployed[1]*, total*	*36,333*	*41,796*	*48,200*
Agriculture and fishing	26,818	30,092	33,564
Mining and manufacturing	3,198	3,884	4,786
Construction	491	675	955
Electricity, gas and water services	50	67	93
Commerce	1,865	2,274	2,806
Transport and Communications	689	857	1,088
Services	3,222	3,947	4,908
Wholly unemployed[2]*, total*	*390*	*472*	*575*
Agriculture, forestry and fishing	62	70	76
Other sectors	328	402	499
	(In thousand man-years)		
Labour force	36,723	42,268	48,775
Employment	29,223	34,768	42,275
Unemployment, whole and partial	7,500	7,500	6,500
Unemployment in per cent of labour force	20.4	17.7	13.3

[1] Persons doing some work and looking for more work.

[2] Persons not doing any work and looking for work.

Source : Fourth Five-Year Plan.

TABLE IV

Sectoral Civilian Employment

(*as Percentage of Employed Civilian Labour Force*)

Industrial Group	1951*	1961	1964/65	1969/70	1974/75
Total Labour Force	22,400,000	30,206,000	36,723,000	42,268,000	48,775,000
Total Employed Labour Force		29,900,000	36,333,000	41,796,000	48,200,000
Agriculture	76.45	74.55	73.81	72.00	69.64
Mining and Manufacturing	6.37	8.35	8.80	9.29	9.93
Construction	0.92	1.29	1.35	1.62	1.98
Transport, Trade and Services	16.40	15.78	16.04	17.09	18.45

Sources : Central Statistical Office for 1951 and 1961; Fourth Plan for other years.

* Percentage of total labour force.

TABLE V

Work Stoppages at Factories

Year	Stoppages	Workers involved	Man-days lost
1948	57	36,231	135,580
1957	150	188,001	810,601
1960	42	25,749	78,765
1961	54	26,303	79,191
1962	121	69,482	387,847
1963	221	221,613	1,888,167
1965	157	144,489	494,566
1966	115	1,063,286	295,261
1968*	189	190,506	695,491

*January 1968 to February 1969.

Source : Ministry of Labour.

TABLE VI

Civilian Labour Force by Completed Level and Area of Education

(In thousands)

	1965	1970	1975
Labour force, total	36,723.0	42,268.0	48,775.0
Nil and below first level	31,571.5	34,517.3	36,953.5
First level[1]	3,997.3	6,024.9	9,200.9
Second level[2]	970.9	1,405.3	2,110.9
Third level[3]	183.3	320.5	509.7
Arts and Science	123.2	214.5	337.2
Education	14.9	27.1	43.6
Law	13.5	18.0	24.7
Commerce	11.4	31.4	57.7
Engineering	7.1	11.6	20.3
Medicine	6.8	9.3	13.5
Agriculture	4.5	6.7	10.9
Others	1.9	1.9	1.9

[1]Completed grades 5, 6, 7, 8 or 9. [2]Matriculates and Intermediates.
[3]Degree holders.
Source : Fourth Five-Year Plan.



New High Court Building at Dacca.

The growing skyline of a commercial area of Karachi.



Physical Planning and Housing

SHORTAGE of housing and associated facilities is one of the principal problems of developing countries; and the high rate of urbanization that accompanies rapid economic development, coupled with a paucity of national resources, has accentuated the problem in Pakistan. Good housing is not produced automatically as a result of progress in the industrial, agricultural or commercial fields. Indeed, for quite some time there was a general belief that a certain price had to be paid for rapid economic development in the form of deteriorated living conditions. Now it is recognized that, on a long-term basis, the problem can be tackled through planned and sustained development of the total environment in which people live, work and seek the satisfaction of basic social, cultural and recreational needs, so that the development of housing becomes part of the larger development of healthy and economically viable communities. It is within this broad policy framework that the Third Plan aimed at initiating the first modest comprehensive programme for physical planning and housing, on both curative and preventive bases.

Unfortunately, this programme had to be abandoned soon after the launching of the Plan, due to a combination of adverse circusmtances in the very first year of its implementation. In the revised programme, the public sector allocation was reduced from Rs. 3,025 million to Rs. 2,477 million (Rs. 1,008 million, Rs. 739 million and Rs. 730 million for East and West Pakistan and the Centre, respectively). Against this, it is estimated that Rs. 1,636 million had actually been spent by the end of June 1970 (Rs. 641

million, Rs. 366 million and Rs. 629 million for East and West Pakistan and the Centre, respectively), leaving a shortfall of Rs. 741 million, *i.e.* about 34 per cent.

While physical progress on the construction of the new capital at Islamabad and the second capital at Dacca, in terms of both houses for public servants and buildings for offices, was fairly satisfactory, progress in such other fields as basic development, low-income housing, community services and utilities, and aid to local bodies left much to be desired. Thus, for instance, as Table I indicates in detail, against the Plan target of 130,000 new residential plots only 80,000 were developed; against a target of 160,000 tube-wells to provide drinking water in rural areas of East Pakistan, only 64,000 were set up; and against a target of providing 56 urban areas with improved or new water supply and drainage and sewerage systems, such schemes were completed in only 33 urban areas.

Basic Development : In East Pakistan, an Urban Development Directorate has been established as a counterpart of the UN Special Fund project for the Location and Planning of New Cities in East Pakistan. Despite shortcomings, substantial progress has been achieved in the collection of basic data and information as well as is carrying out surveys and research studies in connection with the preparation of an Outline Regional Development Plan for the whole of East Pakistan. In West Pakistan, six schemes for the preparation of urban development plans for Lahore, Peshawar, Lyallpur, Rawalpindi, Multan and Hyderabad have been completed, and a request for UN Special Fund assistance for the preparation of a Development Plan for the Karachi Metropolitan Region was finalized. In addition, work on other outline development plans was also undertaken, including an Urban Development Plan for Quetta, taken up in 1969/70; a Regional Development Plan for the Peshawar Valley; and a Development Plan for Okara, which has been completed.

About 60 per cent of the work on establishing Housing and Building Research Centres at Dacca and Lahore was completed by the end of June 1970.

Two Public Health Engineering Laboratories have been set up in West Pakistan at Lahore and Hyderabad, and two similar laboratories are being established in East Pakistan at Dacca and Chittagong. Finally, a survey of investment in private housing construction was initiated by the Central Statistical Office, and its coverage has so far included the metropolitan areas of Dacca, Rawalpindi and Peshawar.

The Growing Problem: These research and planning measures are intended to help meet the growing problem presented by the housing situation in the country. The First and Second Plan programmes for housing and physical planning had of necessity been devoted primarily to the settlement of over 9 million displaced persons from India, who were spread out as squatters in urban areas of the country; providing for the basic physical framework of local, regional and national Government; and creating the most essential

institutional and organizational machinery to implement and administer programmes in this sector—particularly to ensure adequate water supplies and sewerage and drainage facilities in urban areas and potable water supplies in rural areas. With the settlement of displaced persons and the establishment of at least some basic infrastructure, the Third Plan, as already indicated, took the next step. But despite progress made, growing needs have outpaced achievements, and general living conditions have deteriorated; so that, for instance, the density per room of available housing has increased from 3.1 persons in 1960 to over 4 persons per room by the end of the Third Plan period.

From a shortage of 600,000 urban dwelling units in 1960, the shortage in June 1970 had increased to about 1.5 million dwelling units. The position of water supplies is even more alarming: hardly 10 per cent of the population has access to potable water; and even in large urban areas, not more than 30 per cent of the population has access to piped water. Most of the latter is from public stand posts, and only 7 per cent of the urban population have piped water supplied to their homes. In rural areas, sewerage disposal systems are virtually non-existent, while in urban areas, piped sewerage is available to only 2.4 per cent of the population, the rest having to rely on traditional disposal systems or open drains and spaces. Hardly 40 to 60 per cent of the urban population have access to open drains for general drainage. Poor sanitation and high public health hazards follow as a natural consequence of these conditions. In addition, transport facilities are inadequate and overcrowded, and the shortage of public parks and recreational facilities produce their own social problems and tensions.

Factors responsible for this growing, rather than diminishing problem, which also underline the urgency of the need to devise adequate measures to meet it, include the following. (i) a general population increase now estimated at about 3 per cent per year and an urban population increase proceeding at nearly twice that rate, as shown in Tables II and III; (ii) the poverty of the people combined with high construction costs ; (iii) the uncontrolled and unbalanced nature of the rapid urban population growth.

The breakdown of urban income groups given in Table IV reveals the significant fact that a high percentage of households are so poor that they are unable to pay the economic rent of even the cheapest form of acceptable housing. They therefore live in makeshift shacks and straw huts. The private sector cannot be induced to invest in a losing proposition of providing low-cost housing for this sector of the population, and the Government does not have the resources to do more than meet a small part of this enormous and growing need

In rural areas, consisting of some 100,000 villages, the housing problem is more qualitative then quantitative, and its most serious aspect consists of the associated environmental factors of drainage, water supply, sanitation and transport, which are all acutely inadequate.

Administration : In the thirties, as cities were threatened by overcrowding, insanitary conditions and transport difficulties, statutory bodies, called

Improvement Trusts, were created to look after planning and development. The first Trust in the territories comprising Pakistan was set up in Lahore in 1936. Today, out of 31 cities with over 50,000 people, 22 cities have such Trusts or development authorities. In addition, there are 109 urban municipal authorities.

In rural areas, District Councils are responsible for planning and supervising housing development, while the actual work is carried out by Union and Thana/Tehsil Councils. In cities also, as municipal government develops, local planning and development functions may be entrusted to it.

In East Pakistan, the Public Works Department develops satellite towns, and executes the Government's own housing programme. The Planning Department controls physical and financial programmes, and sets physical targets for various sectors. In West Pakistan, the Town Planning Department acts in an advisory capacity and prepares most of the satellite town schemes for the housing and settlement agency responsible for the rehabilitation of shelterless people.

The Central Government through the Ministry of Agriculture and Works' Division of Rehabilitation and Works, is responsible for the Centrally administered areas, including the two federal capitals under construction, and the rehabilitation of refugees from India and Indian-held territories. The civil works authorities are the Pakistan Public Works Department and the Capital Development Authority. Long-term national planning is formulated by the Physical Planning and Housing Section of the Planning Commission.

Several Government Departments and services, such as the Railways, Posts and Telegraphs, Port Authorities, and irrigation and power development organizations, carry out independent housing programmes for their employees.

Apart from these Governmental agencies, there are about 400 co-operative housing societies in the urban areas of the country. Developed lands are allotted to them by local Improvement Trusts or development authorities at cost price, which they then lease out to their members for house building. Financial assistance for the construction of houses is available from the House Building Finance Corporation (HBFC), an autonomous statutory body, and a private body established in Karachi.

The HBFC was originally established at Karachi in 1952, but since then its headquarters have been shifted to Dacca. Headed by a Board of seven Directors, including the Managing Director, the Corporation conducts its business in each wing of the country through zonal offices at Dacca and Karachi, each under a General Manager. In addition, there are three regional offices in East Pakistan at Dacca, Chittagong and Khulna and three in West Pakistan at Karachi, Lahore and Rawalpindi: eight sub-regional offices in East Pakistan (at Barisal, Rajshahi, Bogra, Kushtia, Mymensingh, Sylhet, Comilla and Rangpur) and six in West Pakistan (at Hyderabad, Multan, Lyallpur, Sukkur, Peshawar and Quetta). Credit facilities are available in all areas within the municipal limits of cities and towns which come under any developmental scheme of the Government or of local authorities, these areas being placed under the jurisdiction of the nearest office of the

Corporation. The minimum amount of loan granted to an individual is Rs. 2,000 and the maximum Rs. 40,000, with a maximum ratio of 75 to 80 per cent of the total cost of land and building. Interest on loans of up to Rs. 20,000 is 7½ per cent with a repayment period of 12 to 15 years, and on loans of over Rs. 20,000, 8 per cent with a repayment period of 10 years in West Pakistan and 15 years in East Pakistan. At March 31, 1970, the Corporation had sanctioned and disbursed loans amounting to a total of Rs. 507.8 million, including Rs. 201.9 million for East and Rs. 305.9 million for West Pakistan. In the single year ending March 31 1970, the Corporation sanctioned loans of Rs. 10.8 million in East and Rs. 19.5 million in West Pakistan.

The Corporation's authorized share capital of Rs. 50 million has been fully subscribed by the Government at an interest rate of 2 per cent. In addition, the Corporation has received a non-refundable deposit (investment) of Rs. 75 million and a refundable deposit (loan) of Rs. 30 million from the Government and has procured further funds by selling Government-guaranteed debentures for a total amount of Rs. 185.1 million.

Commenting on the various institutions and agencies operative in the housing sector, the Fourth Plan observes, "One reason for the poor performance in the past has been that the work has not been directed by a single agency at the Central and the Provincial level. It is therefore recommended that autonomous Departments of Physical Planning in the Provincial Governments be created immediately. The proposed Department should have sections dealing with Regional and Urban Planning, Architecture and Housing. At the Centre, the existing Rehabilitation and Works Division will have to be strengthened and renamed as the Works and Housing Division, so as to enable it to perform the much-needed functions of co-ordination at the national level.... It is also recommended that Government-sponsored Housing Corporations be initiated at Karachi, Peshawar, Lahore and Dacca. These Corporations should be assigned responsibility for all income groups. While the Lower income group problem should be tackled on a subsidized basis, the problem of middle and upper income groups should be handled with the co-operation of the private sector..."

Fourth Plan Strategy and Policy : Adopting a basically integrated approach —with such other related sectors as water and power, transport and communications, agriculture and industry—to work towards practicable solutions of massive problems on a long-term preventive basis, the Fourth Plan strategy for housing and physical planning also aims at dealing with urgent and acute problems on a short-range curative basis.

The process of economic development will inevitably create a number of physical planning problems which must be dealt with by five-year plans formulated in a long-range perspective of 50 to 100 years if needs of the future are to be met effectively. Between the year 1970 and 2,000; it is estimated that the country's urban population will increase from 22 to 100 million, and it would be disastrous to let this growth proceed haphazardly. An imaginative approach initiated at a time when urbanization is still at a rela-

tively low level could enable the country to avoid problems which more advanced countries have faced in the process of rapid urbanization associated with industrialization. Cities, industrial clusters and highways must all be planned on a long-range basis to prevent wasteful frantic efforts usually expended on correcting the mistakes of shortsightedness.

At one time it was generally believed that investment in housing was unproductive, or at least an economic luxury that should be kept at a minimum; but experience has shown that besides its social benefits, housing plays an important economic role by providing (a) employment in the building industry, including a livelihood even for large numbers of relatively unskilled workers, (b) a large market for various industries and (c) an outlet for investment. Efforts are therefore to be made to accelerate housing construction in the private sector by means of appropriate incentives. Standardization, prefabrication and mass production to reduce costs of construction are to be promoted by encouraging the growth of a constant and substantial flow of capital investment in the construction industry.

Side by side with new cheaply constructed housing units, the up-keep, maintenance and modernization of existing units of housing is also recognized as essential in the form of an environmental approach to low-income housing. This approach comprises the following co-ordinated elements : (i) existent housing, even in slums, will be preserved wherever possible; (ii) major and rapid improvements in the living conditions of slum dwellers are to be achieved through well-organized programmes of environmental improvement; (iii) programmes for the establishment of viable settlements housed in non-permanent cheaply constructed shelter ; but with adequate environmental facilities (including water supply drainage, transport, parks and other recreational facilities), are to be undertaken; (iv) imaginative and efficient management services are to be introduced.

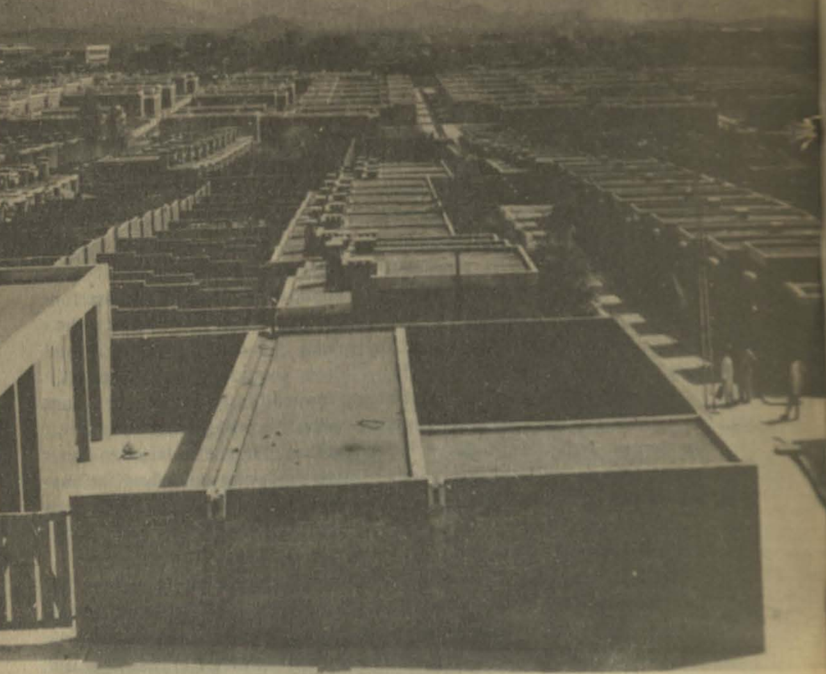
Other major policies adopted by the Fourth Plan include the following: Special efforts should be made to strengthen education, training and research facilities needed for an adequate development of physical planning and housing, in relation to all its aspects of planning and implementation, from construction materials and procedures to public sanitation, transport and town planning. Appropriate legislation for physical planning and housing should be enacted to enforce the discipline of development plans as well as to clarify the exact areas and distribution of responsibilities for housing. The responsibilities of local planning and government must be reviewed and brought in line with both modern needs and practices, and in particular municipal boundaries have to be expanded in a manner that would cover all of the potential contiguous urban area for a period of at least 10 to 15 years. Special emphasis should be given to rural development and physical planning problems and needs of villages, including every low cost means of dealing with their transportation problems. The cost of new Government buildings and offices should be kept down to the minimum required to meet essential requirements with sound standards. The improvement of housing environments should receive high priority, including the provision of adequate transport facilities to and back from work; and national regional and local parks and play

grounds should be developed to provide healthy outdoor recreation for the people in general and youth in particular. Special credit facilities, tax incentives and other legal and institutional frameworks should be provided to encourage housing in the private sector to cater for lower-middle income groups (Rs. 300 to Rs. 899) and so far as possible also for the lower income group (Rs. 100 to 299). In reformulating housing policy according to basic needs, the first essential is to scrutinize loan applications strictly, and see to it that no person or family already owning a house gets help to build another. Second, the Rent Control Act should be revised to lay down a simple and equitable formula for fixing rents. Third, there should be some standardization of housing so that the present trend towards huge luxury buildings can be checked, and low-cost and industrial workers' housing given the greatest priority. In the latter connection it is thought that it might be wiser to think of flats that can be sold on hire-purchase than of laying out plans for vast colonies. Local and international tourism should also be promoted through integrated physical planning, as tourism is not a phenomenon independent of economic and social growth.

Finally, there is a difference of opinion among experts on policies for urban and metropolitan development. Some feel that the growth of large urban centres ought to be discouraged and efforts made to find new urban centres or to promote the growth of medium-sized towns. Others feel that it would be unwise to hinder the growth of large urban centres, as, while their problems only arose due to either the absence of any planning at all or to faulty planning, the retardation of their expansion would slow down the rate of economic growth. There is thus an urgent need for a clear-cut national policy for industrial and urban development. If the Government decides in favour of decentralization, involving either the multiplication of cities or the expansion of medium-sized towns or the development of other growth poles, then national development policies will have to be geared in with this approach, and timely legislative and administrative measures shall have to be introduced accordingly. Some experts also feel that the emphasis on rural development should take second place in relation to urban development, since urbanization was going ahead at an accelerated pace—and without an appropriate priority for the provision of essential services, facilities, amenities and other infrastructure for urban centres, living conditions here would deteriorate further and multiply crucial national problems.

Islamabad : Selected by a Commission specially set up to make recommendations on the siting of the capital of Pakistan, the site of this new capital is the tableland of the Potwar plateau, near Rawalpindi. Spread over an area of 351 square miles, it is an expanse of natural terraces and meadows rising to 1,700 to 2,000 feet above sea level. In September 1960, the Capital Development Authority was created to build the new city.

The city is divided into various functional zones, for which by 1970 a total area of 57,740 acres of land had been acquired, which are described in the following paragraphs :



Government housing for lower level employees at Islamabad.

Administrative Sector : The Administrative Sector, located to the north-east and situated on the main axis of the city, contains the principal public buildings, such as the President's House, Secretariat blocks, Assembly buildings, Supreme Court and a group of cultural buildings. Eight massive, multi-storeyed Secretariat blocks have been completed in this sector. Several Divisions of the Central Ministries have moved into their permanent offices there.

Diplomatic Enclave : A special enclave of 500 acres has been provided for the location of the chanceries and residences of foreign diplomatic missions. It is situated in a pleasant setting close to the picturesque Lake Rawal. With an average elevation of 1,800 feet above sea level, its slopes lend themselves to the construction of imposing buildings at various levels. A small stream meanders through the area. Some 32 countries have purchased plots of land in this area.

Residential Sectors : Residential sectors have been planned in rows, placed on both sides of the main civic commercial and business centre in the heart of the town. The area of each residential sector is 1.25 square miles, and the plots vary in size from 135 square yards to 3,500 square yards. Each sector is a self-sufficient township equipped with civic facilities and services, such as schools, mosques, markets, dispensaries, playgrounds for children and parks. The main community centre of the sector will have offices, a local mosque, a sectoral post office, hospital, police station, cinema house,

club and large departmental stores and shops. The emphasis has been on providing facilities and services close to where people live.

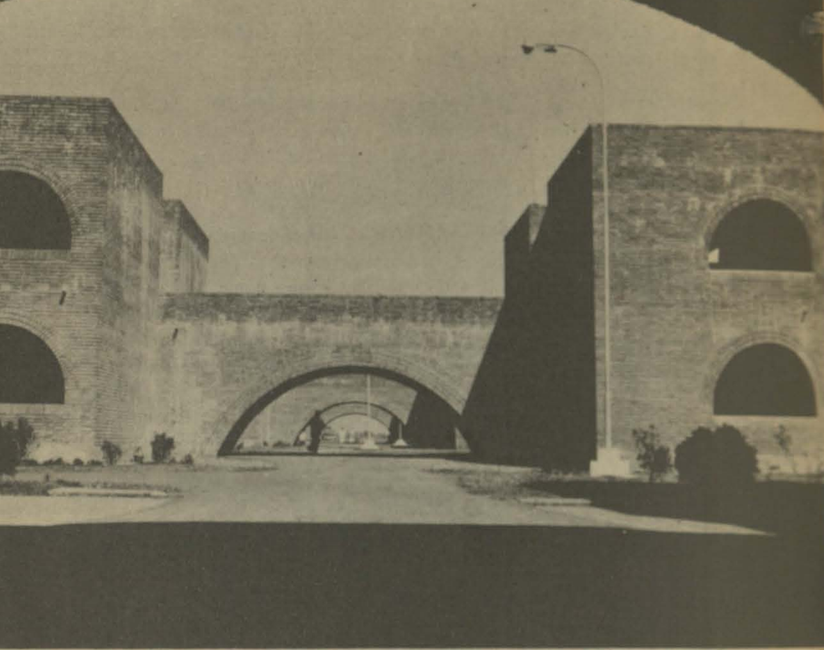
National Park : A vast valley is earmarked for the National Park and will have institutions of national importance, such as the Atomic Research Institute, the National Health Centre, and a spacious sports centre, including an Olympic Village. It will also have exhibition grounds, zoological and botanical gardens.

The second phase of the construction of the Secretariat buildings was completed by the end of the Third Plan period, and over 80 per cent of the work on houses for the staff has been finished, providing some 2,400 houses of various categories and a Government Hostel. The construction of roads, drainage and water supply systems and landscaping is well ahead of schedule. In addition, plans are being finalized for the President's House, the National Assembly building, the Plan House, and office blocks for the following Divisions : Defence, the Cabinet, Foreign Affairs. In the private sector, more than 5,000 plots of land have been sold to foreign missions and the general public.

While, as part of a phased programme of developing the capital of Islamabad, the Fourth Plan aims at completing 60 per cent of the currently planned structures, it also considers that the construction of Islamabad has now reached a stage where the annual Central Government expenditure on it and its maintenance and improvement can begin to be reduced. To realize this possibility, the Plan considers it essential to make the development of Islamabad a part of the total framework of the Islamabad Capital Region, conceived of as a system of urban agglomerations, with Islamabad as the administrative centre of Government and other areas comprising: one or several industrial centres, including Rawalpindi: one or two recreational and tourist centres; a cultural centre; and a centre of higher learning. This would preserve the intended special character of the capital city largely as initially conceived, while enhancing the economic viability of the wider region of Islamabad-Rawalpindi. To move towards this goal, the Plan in particular proposes immediate steps towards the establishment of a super-rapid transit system for the Islamabad Capital Region, of which the first stage would be an Islamabad-Rawalpindi, centre to centre, non-stop connection (in 10 minutes or less) to facilitate the socio-economic integration of these centres as elements of the total city region.

Second Capital : In 1959 it was decided to have a second capital in East Pakistan at Dacca. The Tejgaon Farm Area in Dacca was found most suitable in consideration of climatic conditions, seismic safety, topography, means of communication and other factors. Construction was started in March 1962.

The Master Plan visualizes a clearly defined reservation within the city of Dacca, encompassing Government buildings and subsidiary structures in a setting of gardens, waterways and fountains, inter-connected with roads and walks. At one end of the north-south axis is the Citadel of the National



The second capital near Dacca has evolved a distinctive architecture.

Assembly, and on the other, the Citadel of Institutions, which are separated by an area of land intended for a public park. Other land is to be used for residential buildings, gardens and playgrounds. A portion of the land will also be developed for residences and offices for consulates.

A committee of officials was constituted to ensure speedy execution of the Master Plan and given approparîate financial and other powers for this purpose. Building projects so far completed include the National Assembly Secretariat for Central Government Staff and residential accommodation for the officers and staff of the Central Government at the second capital. Hostels for Ministers, MNA's, Central Secretaries/Joint Secretaries, and gazetted and non-gazetted officers are nearing completion. More than 40 per cent of the construction of the National Assembly building, estimated to cost a total of Rs. 48.6 million, has been completed.

The Fourth Plan aims at accelerating the construction work at the Second Capital and completing the National Assembly building with all its related facilities before the end of the Plan period.

TABLE I

Physical Planning And Housing

Sub-Sectors/Items	Units	Total Achievements up to end of Second Plan Period 1960-65	Third Plan Targets 1965-70	Achievements during Third Plan Period 1965-70	Total Achievements during 1960-65 and 1965-70	Fourth Plan Bench marks
1. Provincial Outline Development Plan	Nos.	—	1 Plan	1 Plan (20%)	1 Plan (20%)	1 Plan (20%)
2. Urban Development Plans	Nos.	3	12	6	9	9 Plans
3. Regional Development Plans	Nos.	—	1	1 Plan (20%)	1 Plan (20%)	1 Plan (20%)
4. Building and Housing Research Centre	Nos.	2 Centres (30%) each	2	2 Centres (30%) each	2 Centres (60%) each	2 Centres (60%) each
5. Building Trade Schools	Nos.	3	1	1	4	4 Schools
6. Urban Residential Plots	Nos.	150,000	130,000	80,000	230,000	230,000 Plots
7. Urban Water Supply-Sewerage and Drainage	Nos.	23 Urban Areas	45 Urban Areas	33 Urban Areas	56 Urban Areas	56 Urban Areas
8. Rural Water Supply :						
(i) East Pakistan	No. of Tube-wells	100,000 Tube-wells	160,000 Pumps & Tube-wells	64,000 Tube-wells	164,000 Tube-wells	164,000 Tube-wells
(ii) West Pakistan	No. of Villages	103 Villages	400 Villages	370 Villages	473 Villages	473 Villages
9. Public Health Engg. Laboratories and Institutes	Nos.	—	2	4	4	4 labs

Source : Planning Commission.

TABLE II

Urban and Rural Population of Pakistan 1950-75

	Total	Urban (millions)	Rural	Percentage Urban
1949/50	78.8	7.8	71.0	9.9
1959/60	98.9	12.6	86.3	12.8
1964/65	115.0	16.0	99.0	13.9
1969/70	132.3	21.5	110.8	16.3
1974/75	151.5	28.0	123.5	18.4

Population figures for 1964/65 to 1969/70 represent recent higher estimates of the Planning Commission—see chapter on Family Planning.

Source : Planning Commission.

Recently completed State Bank building at Dacca.

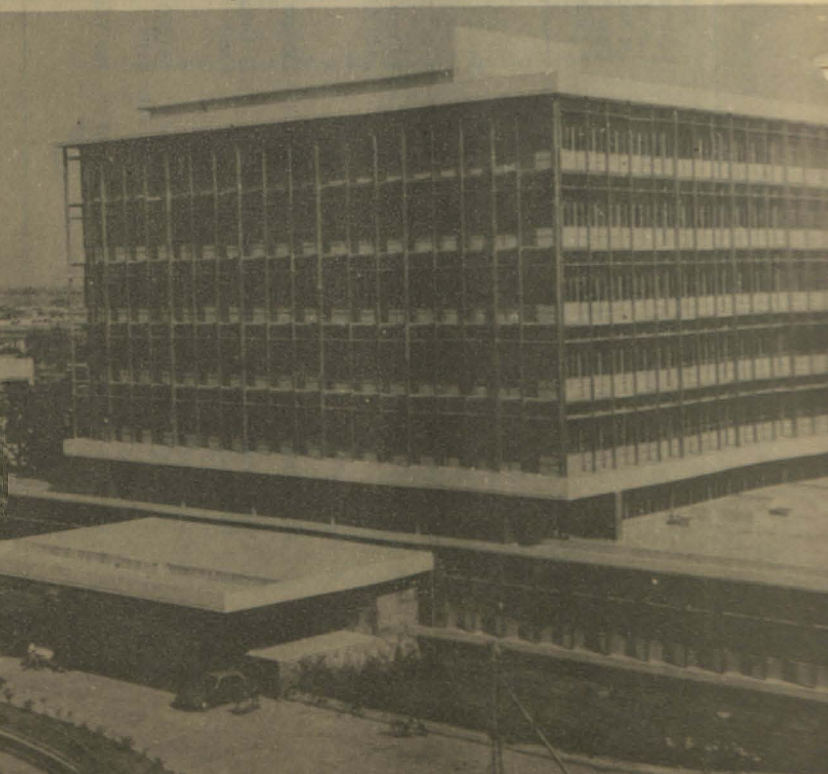


TABLE III

Urban and Rural Population by Province : 1970-75

(Millions)

		Pakistan	East Pakistan	West Pakistan
1970	Population	132.3	72.4	59.9
	Urban	21.5	4.5	17.0
	Rural	110.8	67.9	42.9
1975	Population	151.5	83.1	68.4
	Urban	28.0	6.0	22.0
	Rural	123.5	77.1	46.4

Source : Planning Commission.

TABLE IV

National Grouping of Income Groups in Urban Areas of Pakistan

Group	Classification	Monthly Income Range in Rs.	Percentage of total urban households
I.	High Income	2,000 & above	5.4 (I to III(a))
II.	Upper Income	1,500—1,999	
III.	Middle Income :		
	(a) Upper Middle Income	900—1,499	
	(b) Middle Income	500—899	7.0
	(c) Lower Middle Income	300—499	15.6
IV.	Lower Income	100—299	53.0
V.	Lowest Income	99 & below	19.0

Source : Planning Commission.

Social Welfare

AS A RESULT OF the combination of a slow rise in real per capita incomes, an increasingly high cost of living, deferred development of the social infrastructure, and the rising expectations of the common man, there has been a growing social unrest in the country during the past two years. Dissatisfaction with the current socio-economic system and its institutions is widespread, and there is a new insistence on the common man receiving his due share of the benefits of economic development here and now. Whatever new system or measures are adopted to meet this demand with any degree of success, they will surely also involve their own types of problems. For, paradoxically, whatever the nature of the socio-economic structure and system, social changes involved in rapid economic development create their own tensions and problems, just as they give a new dimension to the old problems of poverty and ignorance that economic development is designed to eliminate. Quick urbanization tends to break up the family and traditional ways of life. Intensive capital formation tends to enlrage economic inequalities, even while providing more industrial employment. Increasing competitiveness and the challenge of acquiring new skills require extensive adjustment to prevent serious cultural conflicts and emotional disorders. It is the task of social welfare services to reduce such tensions, help to raise individual productivity, provide social security, and maximize the opportunities for a fruitful and happy life in all parts of the country and at all levels of society.

However, the country's economy is still far from the stage where the State can accept its full responsibility to assure a basic minimum of well-being to every one of its individual members and alleviate

all conditions of disability, poverty and hardship. In this circumstance, voluntary efforts to deal with social problems and help the indigent assume a crucial importance. There are numerous secular as well as religious voluntary welfare associations and agencies engaged in such social service all over the country; and the Islamic principle of individual responsibility for the welfare of the community is thus visible in practice. What is needed is an increase in the effectiveness of such agencies and an expansion of their scope of operation.

Furthermore, while planned development and public expenditure in other sectors of the human infrastructure—for instance, health, family planning, education and training—also help to meet social problems in the more restricted sense, such is their enormity and variety that, despite a full awareness of these and financial provisions for social welfare in the plans, progress towards meeting even the major problems has inevitably been modest.

The First Plan provided an allocation of Rs. 33 million for the programme in social welfare. Its main objective was to create a corps of trained social workers needed to man and build up a wide series of welfare services based primarily on the local community and to make maximum use of the services of private agencies. While this programme had a broad range of objectives, only about a quarter of it was fulfilled and research remained largely neglected; mainly, it is felt, because scientific social work was new to the country and the organizational machinery at the official and non-official levels was inadequate. However, the financial assistance to voluntary agencies was increased, pilot projects in urban community development areas and medical social work were established, and preliminary moves were made towards the creation of specific Government Departments of social welfare.

In the Second Plan, the allocation for social welfare was increased substantially to Rs. 85 million, which was largely intended to make up for shortfalls under the First Plan. From this allocation, a sum of Rs. 35 million for programme development at local levels through Basic Democracies was subsequently dropped, since no specific schemes were formulated by the agencies concerned, and the programme was merged with the Rural Works Programme. In the light of experience over the previous five years, the Second Plan aimed at two main objectives: (i) strengthening community life by helping people to develop their capacities and initiative and mobilize their own resources to meet felt social needs and (ii) providing guidance to individuals and families in need, and assisting them in adjusting themselves in the new environment.

Directorates and Councils of Social Welfare were established and staffed with qualified professional social workers to implement this programme in the Provinces. Specific schemes were implemented fully in East Pakistan, and to the extent of about 77 per cent in West Pakistan. The planned programmes of urban community development, medical social work and youth work, and for grants to voluntary agencies were successfully completed. As a result of efforts over the two plan periods, the number of *bona fide* private voluntary agencies increased about twentyfold, from 200 in 1955 to nearly 4,000 in 1965. However, developing the practical

efficiency and effectiveness of voluntary agencies, together with a sound financial and organizational base, remained a major task for the future.

The Third Plan's original allocation for social welfare inevitably suffered in the revision of allocations, and was reduced from Rs. 125 million to Rs. 90 million. Making a limited and practical rather than an idealistic approach to the task, the Third Plan programme of social welfare relied heavily on the private sector and aimed at motivating, guiding and supporting voluntary social service organizations, and at creating a favourable social climate for development.

Out of the revised allocation of Rs. 90 million, only Rs. 52 million were spent during the Third Five-Year Plan period. Yet the voluntary social welfare agencies were strengthened, and were able to expand their programmes with the help of generous popular support. They spent about three times the amount allocated for such programmes by the Government. In the public sector, due stress was laid on the establishment of model institutions for welfare activities; and for social work education and training, specific allocations were fully utilized. However, of 89 proposed urban community development projects, only 48 were completed before the end of the Plan period. In addition, 30 rural community development projects, including health units, were completed in West Pakistan—each project covering about 20 villages, with an average total population of 30,000. In East Pakistan, the implementation of such projects has been undertaken under the Rural Works Programme. (See chapter on this subject.)

In the 'Socio-Economic Objectives for the Fourth Plan', the Planning Commission points out: "If our resources do not permit the adoption of major welfare measures at this stage, social security and medicare schemes must be introduced for those sections of society which have suffered particular hardship in the process of economic growth in the past. Those sections include industrial wage-earners, fixed income groups, middle class and lower-income groups." The Fourth Plan accordingly allocates 27 per cent of the public development resources to the development of the social infrastructure, as compared to 21 per cent spent in 1965-70, and the allocation for social welfare has been raised to Rs. 210 million (East Pakistan Rs. 83 million, West Pakistan Rs. 67 million and the Centre Rs. 60 million). This means an increase of about 133 per cent over the revised Third Plan allocation for this sector, and an increase of about 304 per cent over the Third Plan implementation.

Organization: Since 1962, when all executive functions and projects were transferred to the Provincial Governments, social welfare is a Provincial subject. The Central Ministry of Health, Labour, Social Welfare and Family Planning (formerly Ministry of Health, Labour and Social Welfare) co-ordinates social welfare activity at the national level and deals with matters involving international relations. The Central set-up includes professional elements for country-wide co-ordination and collation, international co-operation, and administering grants-in-aid to voluntary agencies and the universities.

The Central Ministry is advised by the National Council of Social Welfare, which assesses the needs and activities of voluntary organizations

and offers them encouragement, technical guidance and financial assistance.

Provinces : In East Pakistan, the Directorate of Social Welfare is the sole Government agency in charge of social welfare programmes. After the break up of One Unit in West Pakistan (in July 1970), Social Welfare Directorates have been established in the Provinces of Panjab and Sind, and nuclei of such Directorates have been set up in the North-West Frontier Province and Baluchistan. The Directorate-General of Social Welfare in West Pakistan before the break up of One Unit was not concerned with such subjects as: medical social work; services for the handicapped (deaf, dumb and blind); probation and after-care services. With effect from July 1, 1970, these subjects have also been transferred to the respective Directorates of Social Welfare in all the re-established Provinces of West Pakistan.

Education and Training : Currently 59 colleges in various parts of the country offer courses in social welfare at graduate level. At both graduate and post-graduate levels, instruction in this subject is available at the universities of Dacca, Karachi, Panjab and Rajshahi. The Karachi University, the Dacca College of Social Welfare, the Dacca Research Centre, and the Rajshahi Department of Social Work also provide B.A. (Hons.) courses. School Programmes for boy scouts and girl guides include orientation in social work.

In collaboration with UNICEF, two Child Welfare Training Institutes have been established, one each at Dacca and Lahore. These Institutes provide in-service training to personnel drawn from child-care institutions and other agencies. The Institutes also provide in-service training in social welfare to employees of the Directorates of Social Welfare.

Research : The Fourth Plan strongly recommends research into various aspects of social welfare for realistic planning and to facilitate education and training in social work, and has provided a specific allocation of Rs. 3 million for this purpose. A number of research projects have been initiated and others are being organized in such fields as welfare of the physically, mentally or socially handicapped, and of orphans, migrants, prostitutes and delinquents.

The Department of social work of the universities of Dacca and Lahore are prominent in the social research field, and the Planning Commission has financed some basic research studies at these universities. In these, stress is being laid on applied research and training personnel for it. The Labour and Social Welfare Division of the Ministry recently set up an Evaluation and Research Unit, which started functioning in1969 and is collecting basic facts for further research.

Voluntary Work : In September 1970, registered voluntary agencies engaged in social welfare work numbered 2,527 in East and 895 in West Pakistan. Voluntary agencies functioning on a national scale include the following: All-Pakistan Women's Association, Pakistan Boy Scouts Association, Pakistan Girl Guides Association, Pakistan Council for Child Welfare,

Pakistan National T.B. Association, National Federation for the Welfare of the Blind, Diabetic Association of Pakistan, Pakistan Association of the Blind, Pakistan Conference of Social Work, Society for the Prevention and Cure of Blindness, and Pakistan Leprosy Association. With several years of experience behind them, a number of these are now providing exemplary services. The Social Services Co-ordination Council co-ordinates the working of voluntary social welfare agencies in Karachi, which number about 60.

Most of the voluntary agencies are engaged in more than one activity. The functions range from the provision of relief in natural calamities to assistance for the physically and socially handicapped. They have established schools, libraries, maternity homes, family planning clinics and recreation centres.

Out of the total of 3,422 registered voluntary agencies, 801 received grants-in-aid in 1969/70, amounting to over Rs. 2.66 million, from the National Council of Social Welfare. The other agencies depended entirely upon their own financial resources. Professional assistance is, however, provided to all agencies by the Provincial Directorates and Councils of Social Welfare. The West Pakistan Social Welfare Council also furnished grants-in-aid to voluntary agencies from Provincial funds.

State Assistance : By and large, most of the primary welfare work is financed through voluntary contributions; but in all cases where the scale of operations is large and the nature of services rendered requires trained personnel, State aid is vital. Assistance from the State is intended to be a catalytic agent, and the principle of matching contributions is generally followed—unless a given proportion of voluntary subscription is forthcoming, no State assistance is given.

Government expenditure on social welfare has steadily risen since the beginning of the First Plan. From a mere Rs. 23,600 in 1955/56 it has risen to about Rs. 14 million in 1969/70. Information received on the work of private agencies in West Pakistan indicates that in recent years they have been collecting and spending over Rs. 21 million annually on their programmes.

The main thrust of official policy is directed towards strengthening facilities for training social workers, and the Government regularly provides technical assistance for this purpose to private agencies. The Directorates of Social Welfare and the Social Welfare Councils arrange short-term training courses and publish literature and news-letters to highlight their programmes. All over Pakistan, field officers have been appointed to guide and supervise the work of voluntary agencies.

In terms of the Voluntary Social Welfare Agencies (Registration and control) Ordinance of 1961, all private voluntary agencies are required to be registered in order to streamline their activities. Following up on the registration of voluntary agencies, the registering authorities also furnish advisory services on maintaining accounts and keeping records.

Social Services : The number of services being provided is large and varied.

Some of them deal with such old problems as beggary, ignorance, sudden destitution and loss of parents or husband. Others have come up with rapid economic and technological changes; the trek from villages to cities; the break up of families; and the social strains generated by industrialization. The problem of resources and skilled manpower for social work are quite formidable; and to a large extent, the immediate task is the continuing mobilization of resources from the private sector, on the one hand, and the provision of technical advice and guidance from the State, on the other.

Community Development in Urban and Rural Areas: Social Welfare services in both types of regions are designed to achieve a variety of social objectives. through trained social workers seeking to promote and organize self-help in communities of specified project areas. Institutions like schools, libraries, reading-rooms, clinics, vocational training centres and recreational clubs are organized, and environmental hygiene and other community services are improved or reorganized. In this, the task of social workers is mainly to motivate the people and assist them in setting up and running common facilities based on felt needs on a self-help basis.

So far a total of 111 community development projects have been established in West Pakistan, of which, since 1968, 20 are located in rural areas. All told, about 50,000 people benefit daily from 800 educational, health, vocational and recreational units under this programme.

In East Pakistan, there are 52 urban community development projects in operation which also cover some selected rural areas. Apart from this, village extension services have been unified under the Rural Works Programme since 1959; and during the first four years of the Third Plan, under this Programme, some 3,000 buildings were erected for Union Community Centres, 396 Thana Training and Community Centres, 188 Coastal Community Centres, and a large number of market/shopping centres.

Medical Social Work : This aims at making formal treatment more effective and at raising the moral of patients, besides assisting them where necessary. In East Pakistan the programme is in operation at the hospitals of medical colleges in Dacca, Chittagong, Rajshahi, Mymensingh and Sylhet, with considerable success. All major hospitals in West Pakistan have medical social workers, who have harmonious relationships with the administration and doctors of these hospitals. The great need of the moment is to extend the programme to all other hospitals in the country. Much of the current programme is operated through Patients' Welfare Societies, which are voluntary organizations with local support and finance. In addition, the National Council of Social Welfare provides grants-in-aid for such work, and a number of voluntary agencies working on a country-wide scale also help in this field. Notable among the latter are the Red Cross Society, the St. John Ambulance Association, and the Pakistan Relief and Welfare Society.

Child Welfare : Baby homes, day-care centres and multi-purpose child centres

provide food, clothing, education and recreational facilities to children in need of such attention. While many private agencies are working in the field under their own arrangements, the Pakistan Council for Child Welfare and the Provincial Councils of Child Welfare co-ordinate the activities of various agencies engaged in child welfare programmes in Pakistan.

In West Pakistan, a Child Welfare Cell established in the Directorate of Social Welfare, Panjab, also provides consultative services to child welfare agencies. Two model orphanages, which seek to provide both example and experience for the improvement of orphanages, have been established, one at Lahore and the other at Karachi. The hostels of the model orphanages have been linked with suitable educational and vocational training facilities. Besides orphans, other more fortunate children also reside in the hostels and are educated together with the orphans at schools associated with these model institutions. This helps to reduce the segregation of orphans and eliminate the emotional maladjustment which often results from such segregation.

East Pakistan has made very considerable progress with its programme of institutional care for children. More than 6,000 orphan children, both boys and girls, are being looked after through a network of 59 orphanages. Of these, 17 are State run, several others receive Government capitation grants at the rate of Rs. 31 per head per month, and the remainder depend on grants-in-aid from the National Council of Social Welfare to supplement their own resources. Orphans are admitted between the ages of 5 and 11 years, and the orphanage, as a rule, looks after them up to the age of 18 years, when they are helped to stand on their own feet. Extensions are, however, made in the case of girls and boys with good academic records, in order to help them complete their higher studies. The orphanages generally have their own primary schools, and some of them also operate high schools. The Sir Salimullah Orphanage, Dacca, has converted its high school into an Intermediate College. With a view to imparting technical skills to boys of the orphanages pre-vocational training schemes have been introduced in co-operation with the UNICEF at four orphanages, one in each Division. Here training courses have been devised for fitters, welders, diesel engine mechanics, carpenters and bricklayers. A domestic science course is provided by the Bait-ul-Atfal-e-Sabyya, with the co-operation of UNICEF, for the girls of the orphanages in the Province. This institution has also been allocated a sum of Rs. 900,000 for its development and expansion, and to enable it to provide residential facilities to accommodate trainees from other orphanages.

School Social Work : In East Pakistan two school social work projects, one each at Dacca and Chittagong, have been established, manned by professionally trained social workers, under the joint auspices of the Directorate of Social Welfare and the Education Directorate. Eight more school social work projects are being organized. In West Pakistan, 12 school social work projects have been established, six each in Lahore and Karachi, in co-operation with the Provincial Education Department. These

projects go far beyond guidance and counselling, and furnish individual assistance, not only to retarded, backward, maladjusted or poor school children, but also to their parents, in order to remove the causes of problems instead of treating their symptoms.

President's Awards for Children : At the instance of the Pakistan Council for Child Welfare, President's Awards for children have been given annually since 1961 for: (i) a spontaneous act of courage and service, (ii) literature and (iii) painting. The announcement of the Awards is synchronized with the celebrations of the Universal Children's Day; and a total of nine Awards, three in each category, are given every year.

Mother's and Children's Home : A demonstration project, named Mothers' and Children's Home, has been established in Sialkot to provide free educational and vocational training facilities. The Home was originally set up after the 1965 Indo-Pakistan armed conflict in order to rehabilitate war-affected families. Three Babies' Homes one each in Dacca, Lahore and Rawalpindi have also started functioning as demonstration projects. Unclaimed and abandoned babies get priority in admissions.

Youth Welfare : The country has a large number of voluntary bodies for youths, and these include boy scout and girl guide organizations, the Work Camp Association of Dacca, the Pakistan Youth Hostel Association, and the Pakistan Youth Movement. The main emphasis of the youth organizations is on recreation, physical culture, and vocational training. In East Pakistan, there is one Youth Welfare Centre at each district headquarter. Three Youth Hostels, one each located at Sylhet, Chittagong and Paharpur (Rajshahi District), are in operation. The construction of a fourth Youth Hostels at Khulna has been completed; and construction of the fifth Hostel at Dacca was scheduled to commence during 1970/71. At the Youth Welfare Centres, vocational training is given to young people under the direct supervision and guidance of the Directorates of Social Welfare.

The Fourth Plan provides allocations for 17 units in East Pakistan and 25 in West Pakistan, amounting to a total of Rs. 4 million.

Women's Welfare : Services for the welfare of women are organized both in the public and private sectors. The programmes operated by the Government include: (i) a vocational training centre for girls at the Bait-ul-Atfal-e-Sabyya (orphanage for girls), Dacca; (ii) the Socio-Economic Centre for Women, Karachi; (iii) Homes for Destitute and Underprivileged Women at Karachi and Rawalpindi; and (iv) Mothers' and Children's Home, Sialkot. These institutions offer vocational training and training in the household arts. The Mothers' and Children's Home and the Homes for Destitute Women also provide lodging and boarding facilities. A Socio-Economic Centre for Women has also been set up in East Pakistan at Rangpur to provid evocational training for women from low income groups; and another Socio-Economic Centre under construction at Mirpur, Dacca, was scheduled

to start functioning in 1970/71.

In addition, to these establishments, 30 Mother and Child Health Centres have been set up in the 30 rural community development projects established in West Pakistan during recent years. All the rural community development projects in both wings of the country provide training in needle works and other home crafts. In the private sector, a number of voluntary organizations, like the All-Pakistan Women's Association and its local branches, are rendering useful services for the welfare, training and rehabilitation of women.

Eradication of Social Evils : Considering that various social evils are symptoms of deeper maladies of deformed social relationships and outworn or distored customs conflicting with the demands of modern life, the Central Government constituted a Commission in January 1961 to look into the issues involved in the eradication of social evils, with the following terms of reference :

(i) To examine the nature and origin of the social customs and practices prevalent in the country which produce ill-health in society or are economically oppressive and act as obstacles to individual welfare and social progress.

(ii) To examine the measures so far adopted by Government or other agencies to combat them and assess the effect of these measures.

(iii) To examine and analyse the factors responsible for the continuance of these evils and for the resistance encountered in combating these.

(iv) To suggest ways and means of: (a) minimizing the effects of social evils and economically oppressive customs (as a short-term measure), and (b) eradicating them completely (as a long-term measure).

The report of the Commission was submitted to the Government in 1963, making recommendations concerning ceremonies and customs on such occasions as births, deaths and marriages, problems of children and adolescents, corruption, gambling, betting and intoxication; beggary; prostitution and obscenity. The report was subsequently considered at the Governor's Conference in 1965, and then passed on to relevant Ministries and Departments of the Provincial and Central Governments for further appropriate action.

Beggary : This is a legacy of ignorance, poverty, lack of employment facilities for unskilled labour and the lure of easy money. Until recently, the course adopted was to declare beggary unlawful in as many areas as possible under the Bengal Vagrancy Act, 1943, (as modified up to March 15, 1953), and to put beggars and vagrants in homes with a limited number of seats for their vocational training and rehabilitation.

Following the Social Commission's recommendations on this problem,

the National Council of Social Welfare decided that it should be tackled through the urban community development projects by the Social Welfare Directorates. In pursuance of this decision, special committees were set up and concerted attempts were made to mobilize public opinion against the indiscriminate giving of alms and charity.

In East Pakistan *Bait-ul-Mal* funds were organized at local mosques, in selected urban community development projects, to provide some livelihood for disabled beggars, thus keeping the channel of alms-giving open to people, but making it more effective. For able-bodied beggars, a pilot project was set up to provide training in different trades, so that they might make an honest living and become useful members of society. Encouraged by the results of the two pilot projects in East Pakistan, work on similar lines is being started through other urban community development projects.

In West Pakistan, on the request of the Special Social Committee, the Directorate-General of Social Welfare had prepared a scheme, which has been approved by the Committee. The new scheme's basic assumptions and lines of operation are :

(i) society's acceptance of its responsibility for the eradication of beggary ;
(ii) application of social sanctions ;
(iii) measures for economic rehabilitation of (a) the able-bodied in jails and the partially disabled beggars, with as much help from Government/semi-Government sources as possible;
(iv) permanent care and welfare of the totally disabled.

The scheme forms a part of proposed legislative measures, and shall come into force with them.

Juvenile Delinquency, Probation and After-Care Services : It has been assessed tnat to cope with this problem through juvenile courts, remand homes, training and rehabilitation centres, it would be necessary to establish about 315 service units, of which each should be capable of dealing with 100 delinquents.

However, at the moment, work required in this field is largely restricted to probation and limited after-care services. Probational supervision by a Probation Officer lasts from one to three years.

Apart from this, a Remand Home and Training Centre for Juvenile Offenders is functioning under the Home Department at Karachi. And at Tungi, which is 20 miles from Dacca, buildings for correctional institutions comprising a Juvenile Court, a Remand Home and Training Centre for Juvenile Offenders have been completed. To provide a legal basis for operating these institutions, a draft of tne East Pakistan Children's Act is under consideration by the Government.

Rehabilitation of Handicapped : At the end of 1969/70, there were a total of 43 institutions and service units, 37 in East and 6 in West Pakistan, providing training and institutional services for all types of physically and mentally handicapped individuals, including beggars. Under the

Fourth Plan, in addition to improvements in these centres, 54 new centres, 23 in East and 31 in West Pakistan, are to be set up, with a total allocation of Rs. 62 million.

Perhaps the largest single group of physically handicapped persons consists of the blind. A number of voluntary agencies all over the country are active in the field of training and rehabilitating the blind. Braille presses, donated by the American Foundation for Overseas Blind, Inc., have been set up at Karachi ard Dacca, and these are now producing the required quantity of teaching materials for the blind.

In Karachi, a recently established Training and Rehabilitation Centre for the Blind is being run with international assistance to develop rehabilitation methods and techniques to train blind adults for competitive employment, and to determine the feasibility of introducing job-placement and follow-up action. A similar scheme for training and rehabilitation of the adult blind has been approved by the Government of East Pakistan, and steps to implement this project have been taken. A pilot project to train the rural blind has been started at Chaurkhana by the West Pakistan Society for the Blind, which is also running a 'Qandeel Institute' for the Blind at Rawalpindi.

There are six centres for the deaf and dumb, four in East and two in West Pakistan, with attached hostels, where training in different trades and vocations is provided. The Association for the Welfare of the Adult Deaf and Dumb, Karachi is running a tailoring workshop.

Three model institutions are being set up to cater for the needs of the mentally retarded. Meanwhile, the Pakistan Institute of Mental Hygiene and the Pakistan Association of Mental Health are doing valuable work in this field.

The East Pakistan Council for Child Welfare has been running a Crippled Children's Centre at Dacca for physiotherapy and rehabilitation of crippled children. On an average, 60 patients attend the Centre daily. Hydrotherapy has also been introduced at this Centre under expert care. A similar physiotherapeutic centre is being run at Lahore by the West Pakistan Society for the Rehabilitation of the Disabled. And clinics for crippled children are also being run by the Society for the Rehabilitation of Crippled Children in Karachi.

The Government of East Pakistan is planning to set up a Comprehensive Treatment and Rehabilitation Centre for the Physically Disabled, for both children and adults, at an estimated cost of Rs. 7,50,000. This would provide treatment, physical rehabilitation, occupational therapy, vocational training and placement services for the physically disabled.

Emergency Relief Work : In the coastal areas of East Pakistan and islands, where cyclones, tidal bores and floods are almost a regular feature, the need for public shelter is an immediate and continuing priority. A number of community shelters at selected points were accordingly constructed. And with international assistance, the East Pakistan Red Cross installed a Radar Storm Warning Centre at Cox's Bazar, Chittagong District, in order to detect the approach of cyclones far out at sea to warn people in time enough to

enable them to take shelter. The warning system and procedure, including local alert points, were tested and thought satisfactory in a dress rehearsal carried out before October 1970.

Cyclone Disaster of November 1970 : However, when the gigantic cyclone and tidal wave of November 12, 1970, hit the East Pakistan districts of Khulna, Patuakhali, Barisal and Noakhali on Thursday night, the warning system failed. As a result, apart from the unavoidable devastation of homes and crops, the cyclone took the lives of more than 200,000 people, as well as rendering many more thousands homeless and destitute.

In its nation-wide mobilization of relief action to meet this terrible catastrophe, Pakistan was immediately joined by Iran, which declared it a national calamity for Iran; and soon relief also started pouring in from all corners of the world. After initial delays in bringing massive relief operations to the various affected areas, due to difficulties of terrain and communications, these were rapidly speeded up with international assistance, which included helicopters and a British amphibious task force, as well as other equipment and materials. Soon round-the-clock relief operations were in full swing, and before the end of the month of November, the Government had spent over Rs. 50 million on emergency relief and succour. It was through this quick action, too, that it became possible to prevent the spread of any epidemics. At the end of the first phase of operations, a total of Rs. 200 million had been provided to East Pakistan from external and internal donations.

Generous international assistance continued to arrive steadily; and by February 1971, the total value of such assistance offered in cash, kind, and services had risen to $ 70 million, including $7 million in cash. By the same date, out of a total deposit of Rs. 38.7 million in the President's East Pakistan Relief Fund (including international cash donations), Rs. 32.4 million had been remitted to East Pakistan.

In the second stage, emergency relief was followed up with an immediate programme for rehabilitation and reconstruction, including the provision of shelter, power tillers, cattle and cattle grants, fertilizer, tube-wells, construction of health centres, and educational reconstruction. To start with, the Central Government made available a sum of Rs. 100 million to the Provincial Government for this programme, which it has been proposed to implement under the direction of a special Reconstruction Board for the cyclone affected areas. The total rehabilitation programme approved by the Cabinet in January 1971 involves an expenditure of Rs. 331 million. Funds for this programme include : Rs. 125 million from international donations in cash and kind, Rs. 165 million from the Central Government, and Rs. 15 million from internal cash donations to the President's East Pakistan Relief Fund.

This immediate programme is also intended to form the first phase of a Master Plan for Reconstruction approved by the Presidential Cabinet on November 28, 1970. It is estimated that the implementation of this Plan will cost Rs. 860 million, and the World Bank and other sources of aid have

been approached for their assistance in this connection. Finally, work has also been started on long-term planning for permanent measures to deal with the problem of cyclones and floods in East Pakistan. (Also see section on Flood Control in the chapter on Water and Power).

Welfare of Government Servants: Both Central and Provincial Governments have Departments for the Welfare of Government servants, particularly for staff in the lower salary grades. The Central Government's Staff Welfare Organization is devoted solely to this purpose.

Welfare activities for Government employees range from scholarships and multipurpose centres for their children to needle-work raining centres for ladies, canteens providing cheap and hygienic refreshments, multipurpose community centres play-grounds and libraries, inexpensive accommodation at hill stations, stores for the supply of consumer goods at reduced rates, and financial aid for those in need.

Workers' Social Security : A social security scheme was introduced in West Pakistan under the provisions of the West Pakistan Employees' Social Security Ordinance, 1965. Before the promulgation of this Ordinance, the employees of various industrial establishments were entitled to receive benefits under the Workmen's Compensation Act, 1923. The benefits of this Act consisted of lump-sum payments in contingencies of injury or death of employees in the industrial sector. Other contingencies, like sickness, were not covered under the Act. However, the emplovers of some establishments had made arrangements to provide out-patient medical care for their employees, either at their own initiative or as a result of agreements reached between the management and the trade union representing the employees. In some cases, other benefits, such as leave on medical grounds, specialist care, and hospitalization, were also provided for. But none of these arrangements, enjoyed full statutory sanction and besides being inadequate in some cases, lacked uniformity in the standard of services rendered and benefits granted to the workers. On the other hand, despite its shortcomings, the system did afford a measure of security to industrial workers at a time when the country was passing through a difficult period of its existence.

The need to introduce an organized system of social security was highlighted very specifically in 1952, when the first ILO Mission visited Pakistan, and in the report it submitted to the Government in 1953, recommended the establishment of a social security scheme that would provide more adequate compensation to workers for employment injury and maternity. The Government accordingly promulgated the Employees' Social Insurance Ordinance in 1962; but before the Ordinance could be enforced, the subject of labour welfare was transferred, under the Constitution of 1962, to the Provincial Governments, and these had to review the situation afresh, so as to meet the special requirements of the Provinces. The Government of West Pakistan, after completing the necessary examination of the situation, redrafted the legislation of 1962 as the West Pakistan Employees' Social Security Ordinance, 1965, which was promulgated on May 17, 1965, and

put into operation through a special institution. In the beginning the scheme was applied to the textile industry in Karachi, Landhi, Hyderabad and Lyallpur. Then in view of the favourable response from employees and employees alike, it was considered advisable to extend the benefits gradually to other areas as well. The scheme was accordingly extended to Multan, Rawalpindi and Peshawar with effect from November 1, 1967, and subsequently was made applicable to all types of industrial units.

With the close of the financial year 1968/69, the West Pakistan Employees' Social Security Institution completed the third year of its existence. This year could be called a year of consolidation for the ground work done under the Ordinance in the previous two years, completing the systematic application of it to all industrial units in the seven social security areas. In this year, the scope of medical care was enlarged to cover the families of workers coming under the scheme as well as to provide more facilities. Both the number of industrial units and of workers under the scheme increased considerably, while the income and the expenditure for its operation showed a substantial rise. Cash benefits in all spheres were increased, and all-out efforts were made to promote better relationships between labour and management. By the end of June 1969, the registered number of employers and employees under the scheme numbered 1,131 and 385,043 respectively.

In the wake of the dissolution of One Unit, the West Pakistan Employees' Social Security Institution was split into three independent bodies which are responsible for workers' social security in the Provinces of Panjab, Sind and N.W.F.P.

In the Panjab, the scheme, currently operating in the districts of Lyallpur, Multan, Rawalpindi, Campbellpur, Gujranwala and Sheikhupura, covers about 100,000 industrial workers. Plans are afoot to start the scheme in Sialkot, Gujrat, Muzaffargarh and Lahore, thus covering an additional 45,000 industrial workers. It has also been decided to widen the scope of the scheme to bring workers in the commercial sector within its purview. In 1970, 43 medical centres were in operation in the areas of Lyallpur, Multan, Rawalpindi and Gujranwala, and the Panjab Employees' Social Security Institution was planning to establish 13 more dispensaries.

In Sind, about 300,000 workers employed in industrial and commercial establishments of Karachi and Hyderabad have been covered under the Social Security Scheme of the Province. The number of dispensaries and doctors has been substantially increased, and the construction of a 300-bed hospital at Landhi has been commenced. Ten plots for dispensaries in the social security area of Karachi have been acquired, and final designs for the dispensaries are ready. A plot for the construction of a 100-bed hospital has also been acquired in the social security area of Hyderabad, for which preliminary designs have been finalized. Four plots in the same area are being acquired for the construction of dispensaries.

In the North-West Frontier Province, about 25,000 workers have been covered under the scheme, and it is proposed to extend it to the areas of Haripur, Charsada, Mardan, Kohat, Takhtbai and Bannu.

Old Age Pension : Government servants receive regular pensions which are normally admissible at the age of 55. If a public servant retires or dies after less than 10 years of qualifying service, he or his family is entitled to a gratuity, subject to a maximum of Rs. 12,500. Temporary Government employees who complete 10 years of service are entitled to a gratuity on retirement, or on discharge, subject to a maximum of Rs. 25,000. Government servants also enjoy the benefits of a Provident Fund.

Similar benefits are provided in many autonomous and semi-autonomous bodies, as well as in the larger private industrial and commercial organizations, usually on a contributory basis.

Apart from normal Provident Fund and pension benefits, the Central Government has provided groop insurance cover to all its employees for sums ranging from Rs. 2,000 to Rs. 30,000. The premium in respect of non-gazetted employees is paid by the Government. In the event of death during service, the families of employees are also provided relief from a Benevolent Fund in the form of monthly payments ranging from Rs. 50 to Rs. 500. Similarly, monthly payments, according to a prescribed schedule, are made to Government servants who are declared invalids while in service.

Welfare of Armed Services : The Armed Services have an elaborate welfare system for enlisted men and retired defence personnel.

Stipends : The children and dependents of army personnel who died in the 1965 war are being given stipends. In each medical college, a number of seats for the children of personnel of the Armed Forces have been reserved.

General Welfare: The Welfare of serving personnel, ex-servicemen and their dependents involves a large number of petitions about lands houses, complaints of various kinds, requests for monetary help; and the Armed Services usually provide their good offices to meet these needs. In cases of extreme distress, cash grant are also given. Sewing machines are given to widows of deceased soldiers to help them support themselves. In case of natural calamities, affected members of the Armed Forces are given relief from Armed Forces Funds.

Rehabilitation Liaison Officers function on an Inter-Services basis in all important centres of the country. They afford all possible assistance to retired Armed Forces personnel insecuring employment.

Retired Armed Forces personnel are also entitled to the allotment of agricultural and under various schemes. In most barrage areas agricultural land is reserved for resettling serving and ex-service personnel of the Armed Forces. The selection of suitable allottees is made by the Service concerned. The Army has a separate agency for the purpose, whose functions include guidance and the provision of material for starting work on the land.

Retired personnel and their sons are eligible for vocational training at various technical training centres, at which 25 per cent of the available places are reserved for retired army personnel. Two more centres, one in each zone of the country, are being set up exclusively for ex-servicemen.

Benevolent Fund and Insurance : Armed Forces Officers Benevolent Funds aim at providing relief or assistance to families of deceased, invalid or incapacitated subscribers. Similar funds exist for junior commissioned officers and other ranks also.

Gróup Insurance Schemes for serving and retired Defence personnel also exist. After the payment of a nominal annual premium, officers and men are insured for suitable sums of money.

Fauji Foundation—Welfare Schemes : The above welfare measures are supplemented by the welfare schemes of the Fauji Foundation, formerly known as the PWSR Fund. The Foundation, with its headquarters at Rawalpindi, is a Trust created under the Charitable Endowment Act, 1890, for the benefit of ex-servicemen of the Army, Navy and Air Force, for those who has served in the ranks in World War II, and for *bona-fide* dependents of these two categories of personnel. The welfare schemes of the Fauji Foundation may be classified under four headings.

(i) *Training and Educational Schemes* : These cover general stipends for pre-matric and post-matric courses; vocational stipends at technical training centres; institutional stipends for pre-matric and post-matric courses for blind, deaf and dumb beneficiaries; scholarships at Cadet Colleges, Sir Syed High School at Katas, and the Military College, Jhelum; and financial assistance to selected cadets. The foundation also awards higher rates of stipends to dependents of *Shaheeds* of the Indo-Pakistan conflict of 1965.

(ii) *Medical Schemes* : The Foundation has its Medical, Centre at Rawalpindi. This complex meets needs for hospitalization and specialized treatment as well of out-patient care. Some TB beds have been reserved by the Foundation at the TB Sanatorium, Dadar. The Fauji Foundation Medical Centre also has an Artificial Limb Factory for the manufacture, fitting and repair of artificial limbs and appliances, and a Rehabilitation Wing. Non-entitled patients can be treated on payment. In East Pakistan, beds have been reserved in Combined Military Hospitals at Chittagong, Comilla and Jessore. All charges for medical treatment are borne by the Foundation, including conveyance charges, cost of X-ray films, and dispatch of medicines to T.B. patients by post for treatment at home.

(iii) *Rest Houses* : The Foundation finances Rest Houses run by District Armed Services Boards for its beneficiaries in some of the important district headquarter towns: Dacca, Peshawar, Kohat, Mianwali, Rawalpindi, Jhelum, Lahore, Muzaffargarh, Sahiwal and Mirpur Khas. Accommodation charges at these Rest Houses are quite nominal.)

(iv) *Industrial Project* : The Foundation also operates its own industrial projects located at Rawalpindi, Jhelum, Tando Mohammad Khan Chittagong and Ghorasal, in which priority is given to the employment of ex-servicemen.

Literature

ALTHOUGH no less than 24 distinct languages are spoken in Pakistan, most of these, including the main languages—Urdu and Bengali (the two national languages) and Baluchi, Panjabi, Pashto and Sindhi—are closely interrelated, having a common origin and having imbibed similar cultural and linguistic influences through the ages. They are mostly descendants of the old *prakrits* which together formed the Indo-Pakistan branch of the ancient Indo-European family. The bulk of the basic vocabulary of these languages is easily recognized to be closely. related, and they have certain grammatical similarities which make it easier for the people of one region to learn the language of another region. They have, by and large, a common syntax, so that you can render a sentence from one language into another almost word for word. Thus Bengali in East Pakistan has sprung from the same original roots as Sindhi or Panjabi in the West, while Urdu, which is a very mixed language, is by and large based on one of the North Indian dialects of the same family.

While the following pages deal only with the literature of the six main languages spoken in Pakistan and its five Provinces, it is worth noting the other linguistic richness that exists side by side with these, including various distinct dialects. Apart from the Indo-European family of languages, other languages spoken belong to the Austric, the Dravidian, the Semitic and the Tibeto-Chinese family. To the Austric family belong Santhali and Khasi, which existed before the Dravidians came (circa 3,500 BC) and are the only two survivals of this period. Khasi can be heard spoken in certain areas of Sylhet, and Santhali in Dinajpur and Rajshahi Districts of East Pakistan. The Dravidian family, apart from the South Indian languages—Tamil, Malayalam, Telegu and Kanarese—spoken by only a few individuals (mostly immigrants), includes Brahui, which is a

remnant of what was one of the great Western Dravidian language stocks of the Subcontinent and now survives chiefly as the main mother tongue of the Kalat Division. To the Semitic family belongs Arabic, with few exceptions, spoken only as a second language; and to the Tibeto-Chinese family, Arakanese (with its dialects, Maghi and Murung), Burmese and other Assam-Burman tongues (including Manipuri (Meithei), Lushai, Garo and Tripuri), which are mainly spoken in certain areas of the Sylhet District. To the Indo-European family, apart from the main languages mentioned above, belong: the Dardic branch of languages, including the Kafir tongues (Kalash of Black Kafirs and Bashgali of Red Kafirs), Kashmiri, Kohwar (with dialects of Chitrali, Arandri, Dandarik, Dameli, Jadri, Biyar, Malolo, Gididi, and Kashkari), and Kohistani (with dialects of Gujari, Ajari, Torwati and Kalami), all of which may be heard spoken mainly in the northern mountain areas of West Pakistan; English of the European branch; Persian, (with dialects of Dehwani, Yargha, Badakhshani and Lorichini), as well as Baluchi and Pashto, of the Iranian branch; and the large Indo-Aryan branch of languages, which apart from Bengali, Panjabi, Sindhi and Urdu, also include Assamese, Gujrati, Hindi and Bihari, Marathi (with the dialect, Thakri), Oriya, Rajasthani (with dialects of Maiwati, Marwari, Jaipuri, Ajmeri, Bikaniri, Rajputani, Kathewari, Bhili). Associated with the six main language, too, there are a number of dialects : with Bengali, Chittagonian, Sylhetta, Chakma and Hajong; with Panjabi, Multani, Lahanda Bahawalpuri, Derawali, Jafirki, Khetrani, Dogra and Pahari; with Sindhi, Jattki, Seraiki, Lasi, Thareli, Dhatki and Kachhi; with Baluchi, Makrani and Makrani-Kechi; with Pashto, Afghani, Kabuli and Pathani; with Urdu, Hindustani and Bihari (written in the Devnagri script by some Hindus).

Urdu

Urdu evolved over a period of centuries as a by-product of cultural contacts between the local population of the Subcontinent and the Muslims—Arabs, Iranians, Turks and others—who, after the initial conquest, came in successive waves as settlers, traders or missionaries. Urdu developed through popular contact, and became the lingua franca of the Subcontinent. With a singular capacity for assimilation, it has absorbed thousands of words from Arabic, Persian, Turkish, and later from English and Portuguese, to mention only the main sources. In recent times, Urdu literature has also imbibed a considerable influence from the intellectual and literary trends of the Western world.

Poetry has existed in Urdu for centuries. Amir Khusro, the great courtier-poet of Delhi, better known for his Persian works, is traditionally looked upon as the father of Urdu poetry. Many playful verses, in which Persian words are intermingled with Hindi, are attributed to him; but they can hardly be classed as serious literature. It was in the Deccan that Urdu poetry had its first flowering around the middle of the fifteenth century. The earliest known writings in the Deccan dialect date from the Behmani

period. From Nizami, the author of the first *masnavi* in Dakhni Urdu, and Khwaja Banda Nawaz, to whom the first prose work of Urdu is ascribed, we have a long line of authors, including such illustrious names as Ashraf, author of *Nausar-har;* Rustami of Bijapur, whose *Khawar Nama* has recently been published by the Urdu Development Board Karachi; the poet-king Quli Qutb Shah (d. 1611) and Mulla Wajhi, whose *Sub-ras* is a delightful allegory of mystic significance. After about 250 years, the scene of literary activity shifted to Delhi when Wali of Gujrat came to the Mughal court. Wali is looked upon as the father of the modern Urdu *ghazal*. The eighteenth century was dominated by Mir and Sauda, two of the greatest poets of the Urdu language. The latter is sonorous and satirical, while the former is pensive, soft-spoken and deeply touching. Among the noted ghazal writers of Urdu mention may be made of Dard, Atish, Nasikh and Mushafi, all masters of style. Nazir Akbarabadi, a great innovator, was considered a low-brow in his days because of his deviation from traditional subjects and diction. Anees and Dabir are the most distinguished masters of the *marsia*, or elegiac poetry, dedicated to the martyrdom of Husain, the grandson of the Prophet. The *marsia* is mostly written in six-line stanzas called *musaddas*.

There was little prose in Urdu until about the end of the eighteenth century, except for a few religious treatises. The only prose works of the eighteenth century that have come to light are Fazli's *Deh Majlis*, Shah Alam's *Ajaib-ul-Qisas* and the story of *Mehr Afroz-o-Dilbar* by Iswi Khan. These are dated prior to the numerous works commissioned by the Fort William College of Calcutta under the direction of Dr. John Gilchrist, for teaching Urdu to British civil servants. These books include *Bagh-o-Bahar*, *Araish-e-Mehfil*, *Tota Kahani*, etc., which constitute the foundation of modern functional Urdu prose.

However, almost all these books were story books. It was in the middle of the nineteenth century that Urdu prose acquired a scientific and literary bias. The credit goes to the old Delhi College, where the syllabi were modern and Western-oriented but the medium of instruction was Urdu, and to the great Syed Ahmad Khan and his colleagues in the Aligarh reform movement. The credit for introducing Urdu to modern sciences goes to Shams-ul-Umara, a nobleman of Hyderabad, Deccan, and his associates, who compiled a number of scientific works in Urdu during 1832-49. The work was carried forward under the patronage of the kings of Oudh, and later, by the Scientific Society founded by Syed Ahmad Khan in the sixties of the last century, and by the Usmania University of Hyderabad, Deccan, up to the middle of the present century. Some significant additions have since been made to the scientific literature of Urdu by Pakistani universities and other academic institutions.

Nazir Ahmad, Mohammad Husain Azad, Hali and Shibli, besides Syed Ahmad Khan himself, greatly enriched Urdu prose, producing their masterpieces in the latter part of the century.

The period also saw the birth of modern Urdu poetry. Ghalib (1796-1869), one of the greatest of Urdu poets, had produced his best work

in the first half of the nineteenth century. In the early seventies a new literary movement was led by the Anjuman-i-Panjab of Lahore at the initiative of Colonel Holroyd, with Altaf Husain Hali and Mohammad Husair Azad as the main pillars of the Anjuman. It heralded a new era of Urd verse. Traditional poetry, however, held the field till Iqbal (1877-1938) came to dominate the scene in the twentieth century.

Iqbal is too great to be mentioned as just a historical link. He was a singular phenomenon, and the wealth of writings he left is in a class by itself. Iqbal was more than a poet—a sage, a philosopher, a beacon of light for his people. He combined the best formal tradition of Urdu and Persian poetry with a thought content all his own and a missionary zeal to urge his compatriots on to freedom and a nobler order of life. He was also the first to advocate the idea of a Sovereign Muslim State in the Subcontinent. Pakistan is sometimes described as the embodiment of a poet's dream, and the poet was Iqbal.

Another poet of note, who was in the forefront before the First World War, was the great satirist, Akbar Allahabadi. Topical poetry, as distinct from the lyrical, took firm root in his hands.

The winds of Western influence blew more strongly after the First World War, and the struggle for national independence and emancipation was intensified. The twenties were the days of agitation and rebellion that produced poets like Hasrat Mohani and Josh Məlihabadi, on the one hand, and pure romantics of the Walter Pater School, such as Niaz Fatehpuri and Sajjad Hyder Yaldram, on the other. The melodious Hafeez Jullandhri is the product of the same decade, although he is uninfluenced by either of these currents. And Ghulam Mustafa Tabassum has written with liveliness in several poetic forms.

In the thirties, a whole new generation of writers emerged in the wake of the new currents of thought that swept the world. Among them were the great Urdu journalist, poet and satirist, Maulana Zafar Ali Khan ; Sir Abdul Qadir, the famous editor of the *Makhzan* and patron of arts and letters; Mian Bashir Ahmad, the eminent founder and editor of the literary journal, *Humayun*, Abdul Aziz Falak Paima, a versatile essayist; Abdul Majid Salik, a widely read journalist and humorist. Some of these authors had begun writing in the twenties, and all made their major contribution in creative writing before Independence.

The general unrest that filled the atmosphere influenced literature; and realism, particularly social realism, was reflected in all branches of creative literature and criticism. The trend was promoted by political events and movements of the time and came to be identified as progressive writing. There was another current influenced by the writings of Freud, running parallel to the progressive movement. It was represented by poets like Miraji, and had many adherents among lesser writers and poets.

The decade preceding Independence produced several major poets and a number of fiction writers of note. Experiments were made in form and technique, and no subject was considered flimsy, low-brow or sacrosanct. There were some iconoclasts and nihilists among the pioneers, as

is always the case when a radical break from tradition is involved; but later this gave way to a more composed, though by no means less determined approach. The revolt became disciplined through experience.

Independence touched the poets no less profoundly than the story writers. In the beginning there was a somewhat subdued exultation over the achievement of Pakistan, which nevertheless inspired a great deal of patriotic poetry. The Indo-Pakistan armed conflict of 1965 gave further impetus to patriotic writing. Several voluminous collections of poems written during and after the conflict have appeared, and they include much that will probably last. The celebrated lyricist, Hafeez Jullandhri, who composed the national anthem of Pakistan, may be regarded as the most outstanding representative of the patriotic trend.

After Independence, the progressive movement declined as an organized platform, but the approach and trend of thought persists and widely permeates literary writing. Besides Faiz Ahmad Faiz (winner of the Lenin Prize), Ahmad Nadeem Qasmi and Ehsan Danish—outstanding members of the group—there is a whole generation of new poets who are touched by progressive ideas, but whose approach is less clear-cut. Among them may be named, Zaheer Kashmiri, Qateel Shifai, Zahoor Nazar, Habib Jalib, Farigh Bokhari and Arif Abdul Matin. Then there are those who have tried to enliven old forms with new spirit and ideas without having any marked ideological leanings. Mustafa Zaidi (whose death occurred under tragic and mysterious circumstances in 1970), Zia Jullandhri, Mukhtar Siddiqi, Qayyum Nazar, A.H. Madani may be named among them. Conversely, there have also been some experiments which led to the introduction of such new poetic forms as *ghinaiya* (a kind of ballad), *kafi*, *mahiya*, *jugni* (special modes, as it were) and cantos. Some of these have been consciously adopted from regional languages. Rafiq Khawar, Jafar Tahir, Abdul Aziz Khalid and a number of lesser poets have carried out experiments both in form and diction. The blank verse once developed by N. M. Rashid and his group has widened its circle of adherents. He has himself produced some significant works. *Iran Mein Ajnabi* was more recently followed by *La-Insan*.

Amid these innovations, the traditional *ghazal* continued to be the most favourite form of the younger as well as the elder generation of poets, and found new life and lustre in the hands of Faiz, Qasmi, Hafiz Hoshiarpuri, Nasir Kazmi, Shan-ul- Haq Haqqee, Adam and Yusuf Zafar. Among those who emerged into prominence after Partition, mention may specially be made of Ada Jafri, Jamiluddin Aali, Ibne Insha, Zia Jullandhari, Ahmad Faraz Shahzad Ahmad, Jilani Kamran, Munir, Niazi, Salim-ur-Rahman; but the list is certainly not exhaustive.

In longer poems, Jafar Tahir, Abdul Aziz Khalid and Ibne Insha achieved distinction. Akbar Allahabadi's tradition of humorous and satirical writing was carried on by Sheikh Nazir Ahmad Nagri, Majid Lahori, S. M. Jafri, Zamir Jafri, Rais Ahmad Amrohvi, Mahmud Sarhadi, Zarif Jabalpuri and Tofail Ahmad Jamali. A new luminary in the firmament is Dilawar Figar, a favourite figure in *mushairas*, which continue to be as popular as ever.

Fiction : The novel gained a new popularity during this period. The short story as such did not come up to the level it had attained in the decade preceding Independence. Soon, two marked trends appeared. One was the romantic glorification of Islam, notably by Nasim Hijazi and Rais Ahmad Jafri, both writers who command a faithful readership. The second trend was marked by a preoccupation with new problems of the emerging society, and is represented by Shaukat Siddiqi's *Khuda-ki-Basti*, Abdullah Hussain's *Udas Naslen*, Khadija Mastoor's *Angan*, Bano Qudsia's *Shehr-i-Bemisal*.

Writers outside these two groups make up a heterogeneous class, but are mostly concerned with objective and subjective studies of human life. This group kept itself less open to the pressure of events, and hence acquired a broad and catholic attitude, dealing mostly with things of general interest and significance. Nevertheless, the writings of this class have a Pakistani cast and character, and the universally minded group is enlisting more and more recruits. Those essentially of this group include Syed Ghulam-us-Saqlain, Qurrat-ul-Ain Haider in her Pakistani days (*Aag ka Darya*), Dr. Ahsan Farooqi (*Sangham*), Jamila Hashmi, Razia Fasih Ahmad, Altaf Fatima, Saeeda Sultana and a number of other female writers. Fazal Ahmad Karim Fazli, poet and novelist, though belonging to the older generation, shows this trend in his *Khoon-i-Jigar Hone Tak*, the first Urdu novel on East Pakistan, which has its appeal largely because of its intensive local colour.

In the field of the short story, those who had attained fame before the birth of Pakistan, and have since made some more significant contributions, include : Saadat Hasan Minto, Ghulam Abbas, Mumtaz Mufti, Ahmad Nadim Qasmi, Hajira Masroor, Khadija Mastoor, Aziz Ahmad, Anwar Sajjad and Ibrahim Jalis. These writers were creative, and contributed several dynamic pieces to Pakistan's Urdu literature. Those who flowered more particularly after the birth of Pakistan include : Qudratullah Shahab, Shaukat Siddiqui, Intizar Husain, Qurrat-ul-Ain Haider, A. Hamid, Ashfaq Ahmad, Mumtaz Shirin, Altaf Fatima, Jamila Hashmi, Bano Qudsia, Hamid Kashmiri and Rashida Rizvia.

Drama : Drama received a stimulus through the developing demands of the radio, the film and the recently introduced television. K. Moinuddin has the largest number of stage plays to his credit, including *Lal Qila se Lalukhet*, *Naya Nishan*, *Talim-i-Balighan* and *Mirza Ghalib Bunder Road Par* ; and they have been staged more often than any other plays. Another enthusiast is Ali Ahmad, whose talents were called forth by the Indo-Pakistan conflict. Those who seriously explored this form, include Mirza Adib, Intizar Husain, Asghar Butt, Bano Qudsia, Ashfaq Ahmad, Kamal Ahmad Rizvi, Anwar Enayatullah, Intisar Husain, Nasir Anwar, Syed Ahmad Rifat and Salim Ahmad. In the absence of an adequately developed theatre, they have mostly been writing for radio and television.

Essays and Rapportage : In humour, besides the old guards—Shaukat Thanwi, Shafiq-ur-Rahman and Ibrahim Jalis—those who have endowed

modern Urdu writing with sparkling humour include Mushtaq Ahmad Yusufi, Col. Mohammad Khan, Mohammad Khalid Akhtar, Zamir Jafri, Amjad Husain, Masood Mufti and Ibne Insha. As for the reflective essay, the names of Dawood Rehbar and Ghulam Rasul Mehar deserve special mention. In the field of philosophical writing and Islamic studies, Khalifa Abdul Hakim is outstanding. In the field of the travelogue and rapportage, the late Mahmood Nizami, Akhtar Riazuddin, Ibne Insha, Jalis, Ashfaq Ahmad and Shafiq-ur-Rahman have made valuable contributions.

Literary Criticism : The emigration of Muslims from India brought two prominent literary figures of the old generation to Pakistan—the late Dr. Abdul Haq and Niaz Fatehpuri. Both belonged to the classical school and tradition. Another scholastic group is represented by Dr. Andaleeb Shadani (who died in July 1969), Dr. Shaukat Sabzwari, Dr. Abul Lais Siddiqui, Dr. Ibadat Barelvi, Abid Ali Abid and Viqar Azeem. They try to maintain a balance between the old and the new approach. Viqar Azeem has written two volumes on fiction. *Dastan Se Afsane Tak*. Dr. Abul Lais Siddiqui has made an extensive study of the Lucknow school of Urdu poetry. Syed Abid Ali Abid attempted a new manual of criticism in his *Usul-i-Intiqad*.

Dr. Ahsan Farooqi, himself an eminent novelist and short story writer, writes revealingly on fiction. Of the moderns, Hasan Askari and Mumtaz Shirin, both story tellers of long standing, have read Western literature extensively, and bring a keen-eye of their own. Dr. Syed Abdullah, Dr. Ghulam Mustafa and Mumtaz Husain are also eminent scholarly critics. Dr. Wazir Agha's sociological approach makes a valuable addition to critical research and literary understanding. Hamid Ali Khan, Hameed Ahmad Khan, who is an authority on Ghalib, Muzaffar Ali Sayyid, Dr. Waheed Qureshi, and Jameel Jalibi are other significant names in literary criticism.

Some institutions and organizations have rendered considerable service in the field of literary research and compilation. The Iqbal Academy is devoted to research and writings on Iqbal and his philosophy. The Urdu Development Board of Karachi has undertaken the monumental task of preparing the first Urdu dictionary incorporating historical and etymological principles, on the pattern of the Oxford Dictionary. The Anjuman-i-Tarraqqi-e-Urdu has published many classical works and annotated rare manuscripts. The Majlis-i-Tarraqi-e-Adab of Lahore has published inexpensive reprints of the best writings of the nineteenth century which were out of print. The Central Urdu Development Board and the West Pakistan Academy, along with a number of other organizations, have prepared scientific texts for higher grades in schools and for colleges. The Urdu edition of the Leyden Encyclopaedia of Islam has been in preparation at Lahore, and a special organization has been created for the purpose. A large number of books on scientific subjects have been written for children and new literates at the instance of certain publishers and organizations.

With the accelerated pace of development in economic and educational fields, the demand for books is growing, and industrious publishing organizations are doing their best to meet that demand. Literary journals

have played a major role in the motivation of creative writing and research; for instance *Urdu, Urdu Nama*, and the *Iqbal Review* in the field of research; and *Nuqoosh, Funoon, Savera, Naya Daur, Seep* and *Auraq* in the creative field. All with the exception of *Funoon* now a monthly, are quarterlies. Among monthlies, *Saqi, Adabi Dunya, Afkar, Mah-i-Nau* and *Adab-i-Latif* continued to make their contribution. One important development is the vogue of magazine like the *Urdu Digest, Sayyara Digest* and *Aalami Digest*. These are of the size, though not exactly on the pattern, of the *Readers Digest*, mostly containing original and unpublished writings. As they cater to popular taste and demand, they have been growing in number and circulation.

A major recent literary event was the celebration of Ghalib's centenary in 1969, which was marked—besides literary gatherings in many towns—by the publication of a number of new works on the poet. Literary magazines brought out special, voluminous issues on Ghalib, and some new foundations were named after the poet.

Bengali

Bengali is derived from the eastern Prakrit group of the Indo-Aryan branch of languages. *Charya-charya Vinishchaya*, the earliest available specimen of Bengali literature dates from the seventh century AD. Between this collection of Buddhist mystic songs and fourteenth century literature, we do not find any specimen of Bengali literature—probably because the Hindu kings patronized Sanskrit. It was after the Muslim conquest of Bengal that Bengali literature started flourishing. Muslim kings encouraged and patronized both Hindu and Muslim writers.

Following the emergence of independent Muslim Bengal, during the reign of Shamsuddin Ilias Shah, two traditions of Bengali literature were evolved: one by the Hindu writers who wrote about Hindu life within the framework of religious tales known as *Mangala-Kavya* and *Vijay-Kavya* and the other by Muslim writers who wrote romantic and heroic tales of Muslim life and its legends. The approach of Hindu writers was mostly fatalistic, whereas the approach of Muslim poets was primarily humanistic. Hindu writers translated the *Ramayana* and the *Mahabharata;* Muslim writers translated and adapted Persian classics (*e.g.*, *Yusuf Zuleikha* by Shah Mohammad Saghir, the earliest known Muslim writer of the fourteenth century).

These two traditions flourished till the advent of the British. In this period cultural contacts between the two traditions also led to some intermingling, which is specially noticeable in the Vaishnava period, when Vaishnavism reinterpreted the Radha Krishna myth in sufistic terms. Sometimes Muslim writers used Hindu legends and myths, as Alaol did in *Padmavati* and Daulat Kazi in *Sati Moina*.

Besides Shah Mohammad Saghir, notable poets of the pre-British period were Daulat Wazir Bahram Khan of the sixteenth century, the writer

of *Laila Majnu* ; Alaol, the seventeenth century poet who translated and adapted Malik Mohammad Jaisi's *Padumabat* and Nizami's *Haft Paikar* and *Sikandarnama*; Daulat Kazi, the writer of *Sati Moina* ; and Bharat Chandra of the eighteenth century, the author of *Annada Mangala Kavya*. Vaishnava lyrics formed a completely new tradition in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries.

After the downfall of the Muslims in the eighteenth century, there emerged a new group of writers who wrote fatalistic romances in the colloquial Bengali that was used mainly by the Muslims of this period. As this language contained a large number of Bengalized Arabic and Persian words, modern critics have called this type of narrative poem *Dobhashi Punthi*, or bilingual work. This was the major tradition of Muslim writers till the Sepoy Mutiny. Garibullah and Syed Hamza were the most outstanding poets of this tradition.

Hindu writers preserved their own Bengali tradition till the emergence of modern Bengali literature in the early nineteenth century. With the establishment of the Hindu College in Calcutta and the rapid spread of English education, a new horizon was discovered. New poetic forms emerged and new styles were introduced. Bengali prose developed under the patronage of the missionaries of Srirampur and the teachers of the Fort William College. As the Hindus, unlike the Muslims, quickly accepted the change, they reaped the benefits too.

Muslims gradually disappeared from this scene. Hindu writers started reinterpreting their past, and presented it in the light of the new knowledge gained through English education. This period produced some outstanding writers of Bengali literature, including the great epic poet Michael Madhusudan Dutta, the creator of Bengali blank verse; Bankim Chandra, the great novelist; Iswar Chandra Vidyasagar, the creator of modern Bengali prose; and some great dramatists, such as Madhusudan, Dinabandhu Mitra, Jotirundranath Tagore and Girish Ghosh.

In the year 1863, a Muslim literary association, called Mohammedan Literary Society, was formed under the presidentship of Nawab Abdul Latif. Interest spread and it was felt that Muslim values should be re-assessed and rediscovered in the light of the rapid changes that were taking place as a result of the infiltration of Western ideas. Sir Syed Ameer Ali's National Mohammedan Association, established in 1877, had a similar aim with regard to Muslim life in general. This movement of revivalism was in fact a reaction to Hindu revivalism. Separate tendencies began to emerge. Muslim poets like Kaikobad, Ismail Husain Shirazee, and prose writers like Meer Musharraf Husain, Mozammel Huq and Muniruzzaman Islamabadi gave artistic form to a new consciousness among the Muslims.

By the time Pakistan had come into being, Rabindranath Tagore (1861-1941), the great Bengali poet and writer, was already dead, but his influence had penetrated into all spheres of Bengali literature.

After Independence : Dacca and Chittagong have grown as important literary centres in the last 24 years. Poetry, fiction, drama, criticism and literary

scholarship and other forms of prose-writing have developed rapidly. A typical East Pakstani literature dealing with the life and values of the people of this area has come into being. Various factors have contributed to this rapid growth. One is the result of the pre-Partition literary movement in Calcutta and Dacca. In the early forties, growing political activities for freedom deeply involved the minds of the poets and writers of Bengal; and the adoption of the historic Lahore Resolution gave Muslim poets a new enthusiasm for their own traditions. A vigorous search went on for new vehicles of expression, for new imagery drawn from well-known Muslim sources. About this time, a few translations of Iqbal were published in Bengali, and this gave new vitality and impetus to already stirred and agitated young minds. As a consequence, two literary societies were established: the Pakistan Renaissance Society in Calcutta in 1941, with the monthly *Muhammadi* and the daily *Azad* as its chief organs, and Purba Pakistan Sahitya Sangsad (East Pakistan Literary Association) in Dacca, in 1942, with the fortnightly *Pakistan* as its journal. These societies aimed at exploring the possibilities of revitalizing old sources of inspiration. Farrukh Ahmed, Abul Kalam Shamsuddin, Mujibur Rahman, Modabber Ali and Talim Hossain in Calcutta and Syed Sajjad Hossain, Syed Ali Ahsan and Syed Ali Ashraf in Dacca were the active organizers of these societies.

The other is the shifting of the literary centre of activity to Dacca, compelling younger writers to respond to their own surroundings and their own society and to avoid thinking in terms of Calcutta-centred traditions. Thirdly, prizes and literary awards have given additional incentives to publishers and writers. In all branches of learning, new scholarship, new ventures and new responses were demanded. The result has been the emergence of an East Pakistani tradition of themes and language: words, phrases and images have been pouring into the language from local dialects and a distinct East Pakistani style is evident.

Poetry—*Older Generation*: Although Nazrul Islam stopped writing poetry before Independence, he is nevertheless an integral part of the Muslim tradition, and is in fact a pioneer of the Muslim renaissance. Nazrul Islam created a significant world of his own. He was eloquently different from others, unmistakably unique in his love of life and strength, and that is why he could create a new tradition of forceful writings. He responded to new movements in Muslim Society and wanted its regeneration. In his poems, he used new Arabic and Persian words extensively and effectively through alliteration and assonance. His language thus had a new vitality and force. He created a vocabulary of his own containing imagery drawn from Muslim life and tradition to suit his profuse emotive exuberance.

Gholam Mustafa, who had a penetrating poetic sensibility, expressed his feelings with a singularly melodius and clear use of words. Two major trends are visible in his poems. One is represented by a strong urge to revive the glorious past and rehabilitate Islamic values; the other by songs of love and beauty.

Jasimuddin is another powerful poet of this period. Like Nazrul Islam,

he also introduced a new trend in Bengali poetry. He derived his inspiration, style and diction from the innumerable folk ballads written in East Bengal. The life he depicts is essentially of rural Bengal, serene, simple, calm and free from complex modern sensibility. The absence of urban sophistication in his poems does not mean that he was unaware of modern trends. All he wanted was to revive the ballad form and modernize it. This is how he kept the folk traditions of East Pakistan alive.

Other notable poets are Abdul Qadir, Begum Sufia Kamal, Shahadat Husain, Sufi Motahar Hussain, Kader Nawaz, Mohiuddin, Moinuddin and Benazeer Ahmed. Of these, Abdul Qadir is a powerful writer who has demonstrated considerable success in using the classical pattern of diction, mainly to write of love, and in combining realism with romanticism. Shahadat Husain essentially belonged to the romantic school of Tagore. His poems are sweet, sonorous and melodious. Begum Sufia Kamal is a lyricist, always giving expression to her personal experience with utmost sincerity, successfully transmuting it into universal artistic experience. Sufi Motahar Hussain and Kader Nawaz again wrote in the pattern of Tagore. Mohiuddin, Moinuddin and Benazeer Ahmed were largely influenced by Nazrul Islam. Sufi Motahar Husain deserves particular attention as a writer of sonnets.

All these poets flourished in pre-Independence Bengal, and all of them, except Nazrul Islam, came to Dacca after Independence. In East Pakistan, they form the older group of poets. Except Ghulam Mustafa and Shahadat Hussain, who are now dead, they still, write, but modern trends do not seem to have brought about much change in their style or approach.

The Younger Generation : The younger generation may be conveniently divided into three groups : the first consists of those who started writing in the early forties, the second of those whose publications came out mainly after Independence, and the third of those who have started writing within the last 10 years.

To the first group belongs Farrukh Ahmad, Syed Ali Ahsan, Talim Hossain, Ahsan Habib, Abul Hossain, Sikandar Abu Jafar. The second group consists of Sanaul Huq, Syed Ali Ashraf, Abdul Ghani Hazari, Motiul Islam, Habibur Rahman, Syed Nooruddin, Ashraf Siddiqui and Mufakharul Islam.

Farrukh Ahmad has some similarity with Nazrul in so far as the revival of the Muslim tradition is concerned, yet they differ in the presentation of this tradition. Nazrul never allegorized or symbolized the tradition or the myths, as he derived the imagery from his own experience. Farrukh, on the other hand, always symbolizes the use of a myth by referring it to modern consciousness. In *Sat Shagarer Majhi* (1944), he presented the Muslim mind of those days dreaming of a perfect world order. In *Hatem Tai* (1958), he presents a world of moral conflicts, the world that he sees round about himself.

Before Independence, Syed Ali Ahsan had a similar enthusiasm for recreating the glorious Muslim past in the perspective of the present.

His *Chahar Darvesh*, *Mokka Moazzamar Pathey* and two verse-plays, written after the pattern of Yeats' plays, *Korbani* and *Zohra-o-Mushtari*, bear clear testimony to this. In post-Independence days, however, his approach changed. While continuing to adapt Western forms to his own ends, he began to write lyrical poetry in which the joys of life were dominant themes. *Anek Akash*, *Shasha Shachakito* and his later poetry indicate that he is primarily a poet of love and nature.

Talim Hossain also uses Muslim tradition in his verse. He is successful in rendering his ideas with true poetic sensibility. He has also shown great craftsmanship in using Aradic and Persian words with striking effectiveness.

Ahsan Habib is a socially conscious poet who feels intensely for suffering humanity, but presents his ideas in the form of subjective and impressionistic imagery. His sympathy with the underdog and his intimate awareness of social problems do not seem to have aroused any poignant emotional conflict in him. His poetic sensibility is not torn by the restlessness of the modern world, and his vision is not perturbed by the complexities of modern society, though he does dwell on them. He is basically a poet of hope and faith in eternal values.

Like Ahsan Habib, Abul Husain is also a poet of social sensibility, but his poems are highly individualistic. He always tries to keep out the conventional, and uses a rugged colloquial poetic diction even in his love poems.

Sikandar Abu Jafar, who started writing before Independence, has a deep social consciousness and awareness of his environment combined with a vigorous optimism about the future of man.

Sanaul Huq's sensitive poetry is particularly remarkable for his experiments with metre and his ingenious use of words.

Syed Ali Ashraf, an urban poet of modern sensibility, has presented the conflicts of the modern Pakistani who is deeply convinced of the validity of traditional Islamic values. He has introduced the dramatic monologue in East Pakistani poetry.

Abdul Gani Hazari, depicts the tormented society in which he lives and from which he draws his imagery. Other poets of this group are Motiul Islam, Syed Nooruddin, Habibur Rahman, Ashraf Siddiqui and Mufakharul Islam.

In the youngest group of Bengali poets of note, Shamsur Rahman is outstanding. He started writing in a romantic vein, but later discovered his true poetic fervour in a different style. He is a typically urban poet, and has rendered the sorrows and frustrations of modern man with surprisingly keen sensitiveness. His imagery is mostly drawn from the varied experience of the life of urban Bengal. In fact, his poems are vivid pictures of this life ; and he received the Adamjee Award for his book *Roudra Karoti*.

Other promising young poets include : Hassan Hafizur Rahman, Syed Shamsal Haq, Mahfoozullah, Abu Mena Mustafa Kamal, Al-Mahmun, Zia Haider, Muniruzzaman.

Fiction : Before Independence, there were scarcely any Muslim fiction writers.

After the great historical novel *Bishad Sindhu* by Meer Mosharraf Husain, who wanted to present the past heritage of Muslims idealistically, Ismail Husain Shirazee also wrote a number of novels inspired by the same desire, but they are romances rather than novels. Najibur Rahman's *Anwara* gives a realistic picture of rural Bengal.

Among the novelists who followed, Kazi Imdadul Huq showed acute social observation in his novel, *Abdullah*. He saw life with deep introspection, and in *Abdullah* he depicted the conflict between two classes of people: one group representing old beliefs and superstitions and the other modern attitudes and logical thinking. Lutfur Rahman, an elegant prose writer of Muslim Bengal, also wrote some novels. Several Muslim authors considerably developed this form. Some of them are Wajed Ali, Shahadat Husain, Ibrahim Khan, Akbaruddin, Sheikh Fazlul Karim, Abul Mansur Ahmed, Mahbubul Alam, and Abul Fazal. Kazi Nazrul Islam, the celebrated poet, is also a significant fiction writer.

Mahbubul Alam who has been writing since pre-Independence days, has a powerful pen. His remarkable book, *Mofizan*, reveals deep and penetrating psychological and social understanding. His characters are portrayed with remarkable insight and a dignified sense of humour. Some critics have found a similarity between the female characters created by him and those created by D.H. Lawrence. He mostly deals with middle and lower middle class life.

Abul Fazal is a very successful story teller. He is a socially conscious writer, but does not dwell on class struggle. His characters are very lively and vivid, and he writes with a simple, elegant, effortless style. Like Mahbubul Alam, he also depicts the problems of middle class people. *Chauchir* is still regarded as his best novel

Syed Waliullah is one of the most significant and successful story tellers. In his book, *Lal Shalu*, he has depicted the evils of society with sympathetic feeling and critical insight. The artistic and objective presentation of a major social evil and its masterly treatment stand out. In *Chander Amavasya* he has used the stream of consciousness technique. In *Kando Nadi Kando* he gives the picture of a whole town. In his short stories, also, his penetrating insight is distinctly seen. He is a great experimenter of forms.

Abu Rushd, another older novelist, writes on social problems and presents them skilfully with absorbing plots. His book, *Samne Notun Din*, is a vivid portrayal of contemporary society and its problems.

Shamsuddin Abul Kalam, who has many novels to his credit, depicts the life of the poor, unsophisticated common folk of his own part of the country. His poetic sensibility lends most of his novels and short stories a lyrical quality. Abu Ishaq's *Surja Dighal Bari*, too, gives an excellent portrayal of characters drawn from poverty-stricken rural life.

There are some outstanding writers who are different from the rest in approach and attitude. Among them Shaukat Osman is remarkable. The most important aspects of his work are social criticism and upholding the spirit of individual freedom. He is greatly concerned with class differ-

ences in society, and portrays the class conflict with sympathy for the poor and the underprivileged. In depicting the unhappiness and misery of these people, he makes fruitful and extensive use of irony and satire. His book *Kritadasher Hashi*, a tragedy of tyranny that is also an ode to the indomitability of the human spirit, won the Adamjee Prize (and its English translation by Kabir Chowdhury, the Habib Bank Prize).

Alauddin-al-Azad, who belongs to the same school, is a powerful writer with a subtle restraint of expression. In depicting the class struggle, his emphatic realism is counterbalanced by his artistic handling of it.

Sardar Zainuddin is a prolific writer. His *Anek Surjer Asha* indicates his humanism and his experiment with a narrative having many plots.

Rashid Karim has a psychoanalytic approach and expresses himself in subtle and effective prose. His *Uttam Purush* and *Prasanna Pashan* show his experiments with the first-person-narration technique.

Shahidullah Qaisar's and Zahir Raihan's successful attempts to present the joys and sorrows of rural Bengal are in line with Ibn Ishaq's attempt in *Surja Dighal Bari*.

Shahid Ali, who was once regarded as a promising short story writer, has not been writing much recently. His stories are centred around the poor peasant class of north Bengal, and by using vivid pictorial imagery, he successfully presents the problems of the poor.

Among others who have shown great promise are Syed Shamsud Huq, Shahid Sabir, Abdur Razzak, Anwar Pasha and Shahid Akhand. All of them have a distinct style of their own.

Literary Scholarship : There has been a new vitality in literary scholarship, most of which consists of histories of literature and new editions of Muslim writings of the past. Though there is an attempt at assessment also, this will have to wait till all the manuscripts and works are edited and presented to the critics.

Among histories, two tendencies are noticeable. On the one hand, there is an attempt to reassess Muslim writings and give Muslim writers their due importance, not so far given by Hindu scholars. This is done in Dr. Shahidullah's *Bangla Sahityer Itihash*, Dr. Qari Din Muhammad's four-volume history of Bengali literature, and in *Bangla Sahityer Itvrilta* (Modern Period) by Syed Ali Ahsan and Muhammad Abdul Hai. Dr. Enamul Huq went a step further in writing the first comprehensive history of the Muslim contribution to Bengali literature, *Muslim Bangla Sahitya*. Syed Ali Ashraf's *Muslim Traditions in Bengali Literature* gives a further analysis of the basic characteristics of the Muslim contribution. Both Enamul Huq and Ali Ashraf have shown how the two basic traditions of Bengali literature —Hindu and Muslim—are integrally tied up with the cultural traditions of the two communities.

Kazi Abdul Mannan's *Bangla Sahityer Muslim Sadhana* carries on this tradition of an assessment of the literary tradition created by the Muslims in the nineteenth century. Though Anisuzzaman, in *Muslim Manasha-o-*

Bangla Sahitya, has given a detailed analysis of the traditions of Muslim writings in the eighteenth, nineteenth and twentieth centuries, he seems to believe in a common cultural inheritance of Bengali Muslims and Bengali Hindus. This is the other tendency mentioned above.

Historical reassessments of different branches of Bengali literature are being carried out by various scholars, among whom specific mention may be made of Dr. Nilima Ibrahim (on nineteenth century drama: *Unavingsha Shatabdir Bangla Samaj-o-Bangla Natak*); Ahmad Shareef (Sufi Literature in Middle Bengali Literature: *Madhya Juger Sufi Sahitya*);Kazi Abdul Mannan (*Dobhashi Punthi*; Dr. Masbarul Islam (on Hayat Mohammad).

Different scholars have also edited various manuscripts of Middle Bengali literature. In this field Syed Ali Ahsan's monumental edition of Alaol's *Padmavati*, which includes a comparative study of this work and Malik Mohammad Jaisi's *Padumabati*, is the most significant work. Ahmad Shareef is the next most prolific editor, who has edited Daulat Wazir's *Laila Majnu*, Syed Sultan's works (to be published by the Bengali Academy) and other middle Bengali *punthies*. Ahmad Ali and Abu Talib are other editors of merit. Muslim contributions to Middle Bengali literature is thus being made available to critics and historians. This will eventually lead to a complete reassessment of Bengali literature. Major encouragement and help have come from the Bengali Academy. Next in importance is the Dacca University.

Editing and publication of the works of nineteenth and twentieth century Muslim writers has also been undertaken by the Bengali Academy, the Bengali Development Board, and some publishers. Abdul Hai, Abul Fazal, Munir Chaudhury, Anisuzzaman, Kazi Abdul Mannan, Syed Ali Ashraf and various other scholars have edited a number of works. Syed Ali Ahsan has edited almost all the epics and longer poems of Michael Madhussudan. Abdul Qadir's monumental edition of Nazrul Islam's works, published by the Bengali Development Board, is a major achievement. Syed Ali Ashraf has added a new chapter to Nazrul's life by editing his letters to Qazi Motahar Hossain. In the foreseeable future, therefore, East Pakistani scholars will have edited all important Bengali works of the past.

Literary Criticism : Literary scholarship obviously gives a new impetus to literary criticism. It has taken three forms : (i) essays and books on principles of literary criticism; (ii) books and essays on individual authors; and (iii) general articles dealing with literature in a wider context.

Only a few critics have written on the principles and forms of literary criticism. They have attempted to synthesize the new criticism that was flourishing in England under the influence of Eliot and Bengali's own literary traditions. They include : Syed Ali Ahsan, Syed Ali Ashraf, Syed Sajjad Hussain, Munir Chaudhury and Hasan Hafizur Rahman. In his book *Kavitar Katha*, Syed Ali Ahsan drew inspiration from Eliot's music of poetry and his interest in the structure of words. He also indicated that in order to appreciate modern poetry, critics should get rid of their conventional notions of images and similes. In his later essays, however, he has been

trying to interpret the poetic tradition by stressing the central linguistic tradition of Bengali poetry. Syed Ali Ashraf, in his *Kavya Parichaya*, tries to trace certain common principles which he found in both Western and Eastern aesthetics. In particular, he judges the greatness of a poem by analysing how far a poet has been able to integrate emotional and intellectual aspects of his consciousness.

Continuous efforts to find new methods of critical assessment have significantly influenced the younger group of poets and critics in East Pakistan.

A limited number of books and essays have been written on individual authors. Nazrul Islam has received the attention of a large number of critics, such as Abdul Qadir, Syed Ali Ahsan, Ataur Rahman, and others. Munir Chaudhury and Kazi A. Mannan have written on Meer Mosharraf Hossain. Syed Ali Ahsan has made a new assessment of Michael Modhusudan. Individual critical works have also been published on Jasimuddin, Abul Fazal and Farrukh Ahmad. Thus while a complete reappraisal of most earlier Bengali authors has not been made, work done indicates that such a complete appraisal is surely on the way.

Some books have been written on other literary and cultural subjects, such as Motahar Husain Chowdhury's *Shangskritir Katha* (About Culture); Muhammad Abdul Hai's *Sahitya-o-Shangskriti* (Literature and Culture), *Bhasha-o-Sahitya* (Language and Literature) and *Toshamod-o-Rajnitir Bhasha* (Flattery and the Language of Politics) are enjoyable books of criticism. Abul Fazal's *Sahitya Shangskriti-o-Rastra*, Abul Kalam Shamsuddin's *Drishtikon*, Abdul Huq's *Sahitya*, *Artijhya-o-Mullyabosh* are other competent endeavours. Dr. Mazharul Islam has published *Sahitya Pathey*. Ahmed Rafiq's *Shilpa Shangskriti Jiban* is an intellectual and analytical work. The major attempt in these writings is to identify the cultural character of Bengali Muslims.

Drama : In the field of play writing, East Pakistan has made a considerable contribution. In pre-Independence days there were few Muslim playwrights, because Muslims were indifferent towards drama and the art of acting. Prominent at that time, however, were Mosharraf Husain, Mohammad Abdul Karim, Nazrul Islam, Ebrahim Khan, Shahadat Hussain, Akbaruddin and Nurul Momen. The first among them was Meer Musharraf Husain, who in his play, *Zamindar Darpan*, depicted the evils of the Permanent Settlement. Incidentally, this is the first conscious drama written by a Muslim. After that, an upsurge of nationalism flooded Bengali literature. Hindu dramatists wrote plays on nationalistic themes which brought a sense of awakening among Muslims, who also started writing plays on those themes. Further inspiration was found in the regeneration of Turkey. Ebrahim Khan wrote two plays about the two Turkish heroes, *Kamal Pasha* and *Zaglul Pasha*. His *Kafela* also reflects the hopes and aspirations of the emerging Muslim middle class. Shahadat Husain wrote historical plays : *Sarfaraz Khan*, *Nawab Alibardi*, *Anarkali* and *Mansader Moha*. Kazi Nazrul Islam wrote two romantic plays, *Jhilimili* and *Aleya*.

Another dramatist who wrote some good historical drama is Akbar-uddin. His first play, *Shindhu Vijay*, is based on the conquest of Sind by Muhammad Bin Qasim. He wrote another historical drama, on a similar theme, entitled *Nadir Shah*. Abul Fazal has attempted to dramatize the life of the Quaid-i-Azam.

The most outstanding among the post-Independence playwrights is Nurul Momen. The first play of the dramatist, *Nemesis*, is a long one-act play published in 1948. It was hailed as the first conscious effort of dramatic craftsmanship in East Pakistan. The second work of Nurul Momen is *Rupantar*, which has some similarity with the *Chirakumar Shabha* of Tagore, in so far as its wit and characterization are concerned. His latest drama, *Naya Khandan*, is a success, and Nurul Momen has certainly opened up a new avenue in the field of drama.

Munir Chaudhury is also a very powerful playwright. In his *Kabar*, a one-act play, he has expressed a social truth with great success. His dialogues are sharp and forceful, and he has a fine sense of humour. His *Raktata Prantar*, based on the battle of Panipat, has established him as an eminent playwright of the language. His translation of Shaw's *You Never Can Tell* is also a valuable addition to dramatic literature.

A new experiment in Bengali drama is Farrukh Ahmed's verse play, *Naufel-o-Hatem*, whose dialogues are sentimental and romantic. He has experimented in metric forms.

Syed Waliullah's *Bahipir* deals with a novel story, and it won the PEN prize.

Other playwrights of note are Ashker Ibne Shaikh, Shaukat Osman, Jasimuddin, Ibrahim Khalil, Gholam Rahman, Ashrafuzzaman, Obaidul Huq, Abdul Huq, A. N. M. Bazlur Rashid and Sikandar Abu Jafar.

Baluchi

The origin of the Baluch people has been the subject of considerable speculation in the past. Recently, after painstaking research, Muhammad Sardar Khan Baloch, in his *History of the Baluch Race and Baluchistan*, has reached the conclusion that the Baluch people belong to the Chaldean branch of the Semitic race. This finding presents another illustration of the philological maxim that "Whilst language is a test of social contact, it is no real test of race."

After the sack and subjugation of Babylon by Cyrus, the Achaemenian (538 BC), the Baluchis migrated from Babylon (Chaldea), and settled in the Northern regions of Persia. In course of time, the Baluchis lost their original Semitic dialect and copiously borrowed from the language of their conquerors, the Achaemenians. The Medic branch of the Avestan language is considered to be the parent of the present Baluchi language. Grierson, too, is of the view that the Baluchi language belongs to the Persian branch of the Aryan subfamily of the Indo-European family of languages. Nevertheless, even after pruning all the imported Persian, Indian and Pashto

words twined round the classical Baluchi, there yet remains the trunk of a language which is a relic of the ancient Semitic family, both in root and in sound.

Throughout the Medieval Age, the Baluchis witnessed a history of terror, turmoil and confusion. We therefore find that Baluchi history frequently shows a greater use of the sword than of the pen. Classsical Baluchi literature is mostly in the form of ballads and folk songs, which have reached us, from age to age and tribe to tribe, through generations of bards and minstrels who preserved them in oral traditions with only slight changes.

The earliest chroniclers who have mentioned the Baluchis in their work are Ibn Haukal (961 AD), Al Muqdassi (985 AD), Al Mas'udi (943 AD), Istakhri (951 AD), Al Yaquti (1218 AD), Al Idrisi, and Minhaj-ud-Din Uthman bin Siraj-ud-Din, the author of *Tabqat-i-Nasiri*.

But Baluchi literature did not come to the notice of the outside world until about 1830, when an English tourist named Leech, started research on the language and literature of this historic people and published his report in the *Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal*. This venture later on drew the enthusiasm and attention of other English scholars who visited remote parts of Baluchistan and studied the language and literature of its people. Longworth Dames, Hethu Ram and Burton rendered great service by collecting and compiling classical poems, folk songs and stories which otherwise would have succumbed to the tides of time and torpor. Mayer's *Baluchi Classics* (London, 1900), Pierce's *A Description of the Mekrani Baluchi Dialect* (1877), Lord Bruce's *Manual and Vocabulary of the Baluchi Language* and *Notes on the Baluchi Tribes of Derajat* are particularly worthy of note.

The history of Baluchi literature may be conveniently divided into four periods :

1.	The Rind period (the classical age)	1430-1600.
2.	The Khanate period	1600-1850.
3.	The British period	1850-1947.
4.	Contemporary period	1947 on wards.

In the Baluchi ballads of the Rind period, we find a true mirror of their times, reflecting its passions of chivalry and revenge and admiration for the fearless swordsman. The period is full of wars and woes, and memorable battles and romances of Baluchi history. The thirty years' war between the Rind and the Lasharis, the bloody conflicts between Phuz Rind and the Dodai Baluchis of Derajat, the conflict between the Gorgezh and the Buledis, under their respective leaders Balach and Bivragh, the tragic romance of Hani and Shah Murid, the love story of Amir Bivragh Phuz and the Arghun princess Granaz, and the sad separation of Shahdad and Mahnaz are dramatically portrayed in the Baluchi poetry of the age. And so in these classical ballads we get glimpses of the life the Baluchis led during this period—their social order, codes of honour, tribal warfare, ethical and aesthetic values.

Baluchi ballads have three categories : epical, romantic and others describing the genealogy and history of the Baluchis. The ballads are mainly

based on real events. The poet is always clear and alive in his thought and theme. The ballads are not without poetic imagination, but the style of narration avoids exaggeration. In an ecstatic mood, the poet identifies himself with his hero, but gives him no more than his due of courage and courtesy, likes and dislikes, generosity and steadfastness.

The Sardar Azam Amir Chakar Rind, the grand Amir Bivragh Phuz Rind, Gowahram Lashari, Nodhbandgah (the Gold Scatterer), Mir Rehan Rind, Shah Murid Kaheri, Mir Shahdad, Mir Hamal Rind, Shah Mubarak Kaheri and Balach Gorgezh are the most famous poets of this classical and chivalrous age.

The Khanate of Kalat was a military confederacy of tribal chiefs, and literary period associated with it may be fairly described as an 'age of absolution'. It guaranteed personal safety, and the safety of property, more than personal freedom, and poets had to be careful of how and what they sang.

Khan Abdullah Khan (1713), was a distinguished bard who composed flowing verses in pure Baluchi. Among the rulers of the Khanate line, Khan Khudadad Khan (1875-93) was well disposed towards literature and the arts. It was during his reign that Kalat, the capital, rose to eminence as an intellectual as well as a commercial centre in the whole of Baluchistan. The well-known poets of this period are Jiand Rind, Lalla, Jam Durrak Dombki, Muhammad Khan Gishkori, Mitha Khan Rind, Sobha Khusagh and Haider Balachani.

The British period was rich in its cultivation of the arts; and in it the headquarters of the feudal lords became the rendezvous of poets. Among poets of rare distinction in this period, the following may be named: Mullah Fazil Rind, Qasim Rind, Mast Tawakkali, Rahm Ali Shaheja, Bahram Jakrani, Hazoor Bakhsh Jatoi, Jawan Sal Bugti, Abdul Nabi Rind, Izzat Panjgurj, Noor Muhammad Bampushti, Mullah Ibrahim Sarbazi, Mullah Bahram Sarbazi and Ismail Pullabadi.

However, after independence, owing to political and other circumstances, only some of the hopes for the rapid development of Baluchi literature were realized. First of all in 1949 the Baluchistan Writers Association was formally established, with Ghulam Mohammad Shahwani, Abdullah Jan Jamaldini, Kamil-ul-Qadri, Zamurrad Hussain and some others as its guiding spirits. Then in 1951, the Baluchi Diwan was set up; a literary society by the name of Baluchi Sarchmay was organized in Karachi; and the monthly *Oman* was started under the editorship of Khair Mohammad Nadwi. Later, another monthly, *Baluchi*, was issued with the popular poet Azad Qamalini as its editor, followed by another monthly, *Olusu*, and the weekly, *Dair*, and Radio Karachi started a programme in Baluchi.

But proper public support for the development of Baluchi had to wait until the end of the fifties, when the Baluchi Academy was established. In 1962, the Government sanctioned an annual grant of Rs. 25,000 for its work. Since then the Academy has published several books which include: the collected poems of Jam Drak, *Durcheen*; Atta Shad and Ain Salam's compilation, and verse translations of Baluchi Folk songs ; Begum Sardar

Khan's edition of Mast Tawakkali's poetry and biography ; Mohammad Sardar Khan Gashkori's *The Great Baluch*, which is based on the life of Mir Chakar, and the collected poetry of Fazil Rind, entitled *Shap Chiragh*.

In the development of modern Baluchi prose, Syed Hashmi has made a major contribution. He has also written poetry which often reflects the fresh and creative style of Ghalib, and has indeed been referred to as the Ghalib of Baluchi literature. Other writers who have contributed significantly to modern Baluchi prose include : Mohammad Hussain Unqa, Azad Jamalini, Murad Sahir, Mir Gul Khan Nasir, Murad Awarani, Mir Abdul Qayyum, Mir Mitha Khan Muri and Malik Panah. Among the younger generation writing brilliantly in Baluchi prose are Amanullah Gachki, Abdul Hakim Baluchi, Abdul Ghaffar Nadim, Nematullah Gachki and Surat Khan Muri.

Contemporary Baluch poets have bid farewell to the style and spirit of the past Baluchi poetry. In the age of the atom, modernism has thoroughly caught the imagination of the poets of today. Notable among them are Zahur Shah Sayad (a selection of whose poetry has been published in several volumes), Atta Shad, Murad Sahir, Gul Khan Nasir Mengal (three selections of his poems have been published), Momin Buzdar, Ishaq Shamim, Malik Mohammad Taqi, Siddiq Azad, Karim Dashti, Bashir Redar, Ismail Mumtaz, Akbar Barik Zai and Hashmi Shakir. In the poetry of these writers we find life and the love of life, odes to man, songs of the grandeur of life. And so, while modern Baluchi literature is still young, it reflects the struggles of a Baluchi, a Pakistani, an Asian—and indeed of man.

Panjabi

The Panjabi language and literature are usually associated with the area which comprised the Panjab Province, including the State of Bahawalpur of the undivided Subcontinent. In recent years, however, literary thinking in different regions of this area has revealed tendencies which insist on the independent position of Multani or Saraiki in the South and Potohari in the North as distinct languages, and hence separate literatures, thus confining the Panjabi language strictly to the central districts of this area. Whichever way the controversy is finally resolved, the fact remains that these various languages (and their literatures) spoken in the area of the Panjab show great similarities of literary features and very close linguistic affinity. It is so because all of them belong to the Indo-Aryan family of languages prevalent in the southern part of the Indo-Pakistan Subcontinent. The base of these languages were the *prakrits* which were spoken by the common people of these areas before the emergence of Islam as a political, social and cultural force in the Subcontinent. All of them underwent a profound transformation during 1,000 years of Muslim rule. Their syntactical form continued more or less unchanged, but a major element of their vocabulary became a mixture of Persian, Arabic and Turkish words.

There is a great deal of recorded literature in Panjabi, starting from the

kabits of Sheikh Farid of Pak Pattan in the thirteenth century. But a much larger volume of literature which waits to be recorded is the folk poetry preserved by bards and peasant women from generation to generation.

This highly imaginative and artistically exquisite literature, mostly in verse, has two forms : the lyric and the narrative. The lyric form includes *bait*, *Kafi*, *si-harfi*, *Bara*, *Mah* and *Satwara*. These are to be found in the works of such great poets as Sheikh Farid (1173-1266), Shah Lal Husain (1539-93), Sultan Bahu (1631-91), Bulleh Shah (1680-1758), Ali Haider (1690-1785), Fard Faqir (1720-90), Hashim Shah (1753-1823). The theme of the major part of this poetry is deep mystical love of God. Its metaphorical allusive structure is built on the common experiences of the working people—peasants and artisans—as well as on local legends and Islamic history and traditions.

The narrative poetry composed in various rhythms and metres, both indigenous and those prevalent in Persian and Arabic, is found in *Qissa*, *Noor Nama* (a biography of the prophet Mohammad, peace be on him), *Gulzar* (a history of the prophets), *Jang Nama* (mostly based on the incidents of Karbela), and *Vahr*. The subject matter of *Qissa* and *Vahr* consists of legends and romances, lives of imaginary or real lovers, heroes and saints, as well as stories from the Quran and Islamic history. There are also poems relating to actual contemporary historical events.

The major names in this genre are Damodar (1556-1605), the writer of the earliest extant version of the romance of Hir and Ranjha; Pilu's *Mirza Sahiban* (seventeenth century); Hafiz Barkhurdar's *Mirza Sahiban* (late seventeenth century); Muqbil's (1718-1748) *Jang Nama* and *Hir Ranjha*; Waris Shah's *Hir Ranjha*, the greatest poem in the Panjabi language (eighteenth century); *Sassi Punnun* of Hashim Shah (1753-1823); Najabat's *Nadir Shah di Vahr* (early eighteenth century); Hamid Shah Abbasi's (b. 1748) *Jang Nama*; Qadir Yar's (1802-1850) *Puran Bhagat*; Fazal Shah's (1827-90) *Hir Ranjha* and *Sohni Mahinwal*; Mian Mohammad's (1828-1906) *Saif-ul-Muluk* ; Moulvi Ghulam Rasul's (1824-1903) *Yusuf Zulaikha* ; Mohammad Buta's (1851-1930) *Mirza Sahiban*.

These are but a few of the large number of works which can be regarded as classics of Panjabi literature. Their major common characteristic is the close relationship that the poets establish between the world of physical existence and the world of the spirit. In a sense, they may be regarded as representing an essentially secular poetry; but looked at in another way, they also express a deeper religious meaning.

The late nineteenth and early twentieth century Panjabi literature shows a marked tendency towards formalism and merely decorative verbal play. Mian Haidayat Ullah, Ishaq Lehr, Maula Bakhsh Kushta, Pir Fazal, Faqir Mohammad Faqir, Sain Feroz are the great names of this period. They seem to lay more stress on stylistic and linguistic polish and decoration than on depth of content. There are, however, such names among the early twentieth century poets as Chiragh Din Daman, Hamdam, Sharaf, Joshua Fazal-ud-Din and Abdul Majid Bhatti, who have made an attempt to discard formalism and take a closer look at contemporary reality and the life patterns

evolved by changing times.

Since Independence, a new wave of Panjabi writing has been in evidence. Its major exponents are Sharif Kunjahi, Ahmed Rahi, Munir Nayazi, Safdar Mir, Anis Naqi and Sultan Mahmud Ashufta. These poets and their many younger followers seem to be moved by an urgency to change the traditional patterns of Panjabi literature, both in content and in form. The influence of modern world literature is very strong in their works, which may be generally described as an attempt at urbanization of literary activity. They affect a realism which is of the city, and the little connection with the realities of peasant life reflected in the poetry of the classic poets. The movement, however, is still in its infancy.

Recent Panjabi writing has received immense impetus from two major sources. The first is the radio broadcasting service. Not only has the radio established a tradition of presenting—for the people of the cities as well as of the villages—the great masterpieces of classical and folk literature in its village programmes, it has also made it possible for Panjabi writers to develop a prose drama through its general programmes. Some of the earliest examples of this kind of writing are the Panjabi plays of the eminent playwright Rafi Peer. Later on, the playwrights Sajjad Haider and Ashfaq Ahmed also contributed much towards making Panjabi a potent medium for drama. It is now being realized more and more widely that to present current Panjabi life patterns and problems with real effectiveness, in dramatic and other fictional forms, like the short story and the novel, the use of the Panjabi language is imperative. This was recognized even by Iqbal, who wrote most of his life in Urdu and Persian, as far back as the late twenties. In an interview given about that time, the poet expressed the view that drama and fiction about the Panjab can be effectively written only in Panjabi.

The truth of Iqbal's opinion is demonstrated by referring to the second major opening for the popular use of Panjabi as a literary medium—the film. The unprecedented popularity of the Panjabi film in recent years has often been attributed to vulgar taste. But on closer analysis it appears that Panjabi films are as vulgar or as sophisticated as the Urdu products of this largely commercial medium of entertainment. The real reason why Panjabi films are so popular is the greater possibility of realism which the language affords. Both the pathos and the humour in a dramatic medium depends on the closeness to life that it achieves. The Panjabi film writer and artist seem to be speaking straight from the heart, and hence are more convincing in their presentation of an illusion of reality.

Another positive factor of the movement in favour of Panjabi writing consists of the large number of young Panjabi writers' organizations which have sprung up all over the region in recent times. Not long ago it was considered bad taste—and worse—for educated Panjabis to write, read, or even to speak in their mother tongue. It was sometimes thought that any organizational effort in the direction of making Panjabi a medium for literary expression was directed against Urdu, and was hence against national interests. Fortunately, this kind of prejudice is no longer in evidence in the circles of the culturally mature. In great measure this is the achievement of the younger

generation of writers connected with the organization called Panjabi Sangat, with its many branches all over the Panjabi speaking area. The movement has now been accepted as a genuine cultural need of the people. The Panjabi Sangat has created a great deal of literature in prose as well as in verse. The work, for instance, of Najam Husain Sayyad can be mentioned in this context as an example of a serious effort towards the exploration of the range and depth of literary experience possible through, and only through, Panjabi.

With the prejudice against Panjabi having been largely dispelled, and the younger generation taking to it more and more as time passes, one can presage a great future for it, an even greater future than its undoubtedly glorious past.

Pashto

Pashto, the language of the Pashtoons, is spoken by a population of about 10 million people, living in the Peshawar, Dera Ismail Khan and Baluchistan regions and in the States and Agencies of West Pakistan, and by another 650,000 people living and working in other parts of the country.

The origin of the Pashtoon (also referred to as Pakhtoons and earlier variants of this word as well as Pathans), may be traced back to pre-historic Bactria before the arrival of the Aryans. In addition to the mention of these people in the *Rig Veda* (*ca.* 1500 BC), reference is also made to them in the *Zend Avesta* of the Persians, as a people "with high banners". While history has no written record of the evolutionary stages of the language of these people in pre-Islamic times, there are folk-lore and proverbs, in the form of *tappa* verse (rather like the songs of the *Rig Veda*) or *landai* handed down verbally, which are considered to be as old as the Pashtoon people. In addition, excavations in Central Asia have unearthed evidence of inscriptions in the Pashto language written in either the *Mekhi* (conical) or *Khroshti* scripts, which were also used by other languages in vogue at that time. Professor Abdul Hai Habibi in an important paper, entitled *A Missing Link in Pashto Literature 1400 Years Ago*, has quoted verses from inscriptions found at Rozgan and Baghlan (Afghanistan), attributed to the Laveek Dynasty, who ruled in Ghazna generations before Islam, and accepted Islam in the first century Hijra (Seventh century AD). He concludes that this evidence indicates the existence of a pre-Islamic Pashto literature.

"Pashto poetry", says Professor S. M. Idris, who agrees with this conclusion, "is broadly divided into two classes, namely, Pashto folk-songs and the poetic forms which the Pashtoon borrowed from the Persians in the first instance, and in the course of time, from other languages like Arabic, Urdu and English". Excluding the pre-Islamic and first century Islamic period, about which very little is known, competent scholars and critics have divided the evolution of Pashto literature into five distinct periods :

The first period begins with Amir Krore and covers nine centuries from 756 AD to 1600. It is interesting to note that during this period Pashto prose attracted far greater attention than poetry. Thus scholars

draw attention to four verse and eight prose books written in this period. One comes across extensive quotations from all these books in the *Pata Khazana* (The Hidden Treasure) discovered in 1904 and edited by Professor Habibi in 1945. Authors belonging to this period include : Abu Mohammad Hashim, Sheikh Bustan Barech, Babar Khan, Sheikh Mati, Mohammad bin Ali Busti, Khan Jahan Lodhi, Allah Yar Altozai, Suleman Maker.

The Second period in the evolution of Pashto literature begins with Bayazid Ansari, a contemporary of the Mughal King Akbar and founder of the Roshania Sect. Bayazid Ansari was born in Jullandhur in the year 1525. He returned to his ancestoral village Kaniguram, Waziristan, at the age of seven, and after getting his early education at home, he travelled widely through Afghanistan and India and was initiated into the various mystic schools popular in those days. Bayazid, however, became the founder of his own mystic school and began to preach his beliefs, creating considerable trouble for the Mughal administration in the North-Western region of the Empire. The founder of the Movement was himself the author of a number of books, including the oft-quoted and bitterly criticized thesis, *Khair-ul-Bayan* in Pashto. The Roshania Movement spread into the farthest corners of the Pashto-speaking parts of the country, and gave Pashto prose and poetry a new and powerful tone with a rich literary legacy. *Khair-ul-Bayan* is perhaps the first book on mysticism in Pashto literature. Bayazid is also responsible for inventing special Pashto letters to make the written word understandable to tribes using different dialects. The script with these letters is still in common use throughout the Pashto-speaking world. Amongst his disciples are included some of the most outstanding Pashto poets, writers, scholars and mystics, including Arzani, Mukhlis, Omar, Mirza Khan Ansari, Daulat and Wasil, whose poetic works are well preserved. Bayazid wrote in Pashto, Arabic and Persian, and has also left behind a few pages written in Hindi, which throw some light on the evolution of Urdu.

A powerful counterblast to Bayazid's Movement came from the learned scholar and popular religious leader, Akhun Darweza. He and his disciples have enriched the Pashto language and literature by writing several books in prose, including *Makhzan-ul-Islam*, *Tazkirat-ul-Abrar wal Ashrar* and *Irshad-ut-Talibeen*. A large number of poets and writers who owed no allegiance to these religious leaders also have contributed substantially towards the enrichment of Pashto literature.

The third period of the evolution of Pashto literature is perhaps the most prolific and glorious, and it marks the beginning of what may be describ-ed as a stage heralding modern departures in Pashto prose and poetry. Khushal Khan Khattak is the central figure representing this period. He was perhaps the first to give Pashto poetry a new turn by introducing new forms and modernistic trends in Pashto literature, and is still regarded as a landmark by scholars. This is precisely the period when the influence of the Persian *ghazal*, *rubai* and *mathnavi*—in short all forms of Persian poetic expression—cast their influence on Pashtoon poets and writers. The mysticism of Hafiz of Shiraz found an echo in Abdur Rahman, popularly known as Rahman Baba. Similarly Hamid Mashokhail, Abdul Qadir Khan

Khattak, Ashraf Khan Hijri, Kazim Khan Shaida, Ma'azullah Khan, Ahmad Shah Abdali and a host of prominent Pashto poets and writers have left valuable treasures of literature. So far, about 200 poets are known to have lived and flourished during this period. Poetry dominated it, but prose also had an important place. A number of standard books on religious, historical, moral and social themes were written in Pashto.

Books on religious practice like *Rashid-ul-Bayan*, *Durr-i-Majalis*, *Me'raj Nama* and *Mu'jizat* formed part of the course every Pashtoon girl had to study at home after her morning lessons of the Holy Quran. This is the main reason why the percentage of literacy among Pashtoon women is still *far greater* than it is amongst men!

Romantic stories and versified fiction gained popularity towards the end of the third period. This popularity was maintained throughout the fourth period, and even continued into the fifth, though with certain modifications of standards. *Jangnamas* (or war stories) exercised a great appeal over the common man; consequently a number of gifted poets devoted their attention to the writing of stories and accounts of the religious wars that took place in the early centuries of Islam, in which well-known Muslim heroes worsted their non-Muslim adversaries.

The fourth stage reached in the evolution of Pashto literature came to a close with the death of the great warrior-king and poet Ahmad Shah Abdali. The political upheavals that had occurred frequently in the Pashtoon part of the world since times immemorial had been at their worst during this period. The deterioration of the Mughal rule in India, on the one hand, and the rise of the Marhattas and Sikhs—not to speak of the British machinations in South-East India and Russian incursions in the Central Asian countries—on the other, could not but affect the social, political, economic, cultural and educational outlook of the people. As a consequence, a steep decline of standards began to make itself felt. Military campaigns, religious wars, struggle for political supremacy between various racial groups, or fortune seeking leaders and generals, caused a corresponding disturbance in the moral, social, intellectual and political poise and equanimity of the people. A record of the revolutionary change during the fourth and fifth periods may well be gauged through the forms witnessed in the literary compositions of these times. Although the literary standards characterizing the third period had fallen, there were some poets of exceptional merit like Hafiz Alpuri, Abdul Azim Ranizai, Khushal Shaheed, Bedil, Mian Naim and Najib.

Charbeta, a form of ballad, gained enormous importance and popularity during this period of turmoil. Well-known village bards produced some-eloquent *charbetas*, most of which have been recorded by the famous French Orientalist and Pashto scholar, Darmesteter, in his well-known book *Har-o-Bahar*.

Comparatively speaking, the prose of this period has a better claim to literary quality than its poetry. The *Pata Khazana* (The Hidden Treasure) of Mohammad Hotak of Qandahar was written during this period. It is the most authentic anthology of classical Pashto poetry. *Tawarikh-i-Hafiz*

Rahmatkhani by Pir Muazzam Shah; *Riazul Muhabbat* by Muhabbat Khan; and *Ajaib-ul-Lughat* by Allahyar Khan Rohilla are some of the best known prose works of this period.

The fourth period has yet another valuable treasure of books written in English and other European languages by well-known Orientalists like General Vaughan, Raverty, Bellwes, Darmesteter (French) and Doran (Russian).

The fifth period begins with the dawn of the twentieth century and may be aptly described as the harbinger of tremendous changes in the outlook of the people. The wars between Syed Ahmad Shaheed and the Sikhs, the role played by certain leading figures of the period, the 1857 War of Independence, and the Second Afghan War (1878) had naturally aroused a strong reaction in the social, political and religious life of the Pakhtoons. They fought for the restoration of Muslim supremacy in India, and in spite of their own serious preoccupations of war with the Sikhs, and later with the British, as well as in their own local factious struggles, they kept up a strong and vital connection with their Muslim brethren throughout the Indo-Pakistan Subcontinent. The Aligarh Movement of Sir Syed Ahmad Khan, and other political movements that came into being from time to time, may not have had a direct influence on the Pashtoons, but emotionally they invariably identified themselves with their Muslim brethren down-country. The Pashto verse translation of *Musaddas-i-Hali* and the revival of the religious sentiments of the people by the Ulema, who had been educated in various *Maktabs* in Delhi, Saharanpur, Deoband, Dhabeel and elsewhere, stirred the feelings of poets and writers to the utmost limit. The literature produced during this period of flux and emotional stress and strain found expression in a variety of new forms.

Poets and scholars not only welcomed any anti-British movement in the world, but offered all sacrifices for the restoration of Muslim supremacy. Their dream of a Pan-Islamic State throughout the world found eloquent exposition in the Pan-Islamic philosophy of Jamal-ud-Din Afghani. That feeling still vibrates in their breasts, and the Pashtoon poets still sing of the reconquest of territories lost by Musalmans all over the world.

The spread of Western education in the Pashto-speaking parts of the Subcontinent, though slow, had its reaction on the intellectuals and the educated few in their society. The First World War and the subsequent dismemberment of the Ottoman Empire touched the Pashtoon poets and writers to the quick. They focussed their attention on the sad plight of the Muslim population the world over. Akbar Allahabadi's biting criticism of modern Musalmans and Iqbal's powerful advocacy of the revival of Muslim values and self-respect, coupled with the upsurge of anti-British feeling, inspired the writings of Pashtoon poets. They preached the doctrine of *jihad* against the British with extreme pugnacity.

The Khilafat and the Hijrat Movements gave rise to a type of poetry that called out to soldiers of freedom. This generation of young poets enriched the poetry of the period with new idealism. Abdul Akbar Khan Akbar and Ahmad Shah led the tradition among intellectuals by introducing

the politics of the day into their poetry. They became leaders of the modern educated community, and played an important role in furthering the cause of Muslim revivalism. They were, however, not alone in the struggle. Men like Khadim Mohammad Akbar, Abdul Khaliq, Samandar Khan Samandar, Rahat Zakheli, Khan Mir Hilali, Makhfi, Sanobar Hussain Mohamand—though not brought up under the modern system of education—were also heirs to the natural tradition of the love of freedom among their people.

The legacy of these early poets and writers of the period was followed up with even greater tenacity and enthusiasm by the younger generation of poets who came into prominence during the period of great political uprising in the North-West. The Third Afghan War accentuated anti-British feeling to such an extent that any one who found a suitable opportunity of hitting the British by sword, gun or word of mouth did not let it pass. The writers and poets whose number had dwindled during the first 15 to 20 years of the twentieth century began to grow fast.

Until the twenties the few newspapers that existed in the region were either in English or in Urdu. It was perhaps for the first time in 1925 that a few pages of an Urdu journal included Pashto writing. This was the Urdu monthly *Sarhad*, edited and published by the late Allah Bakhsh Yusufi. Just about this time another journal, *Afghan*, also appeared in Mardan with a few pages devoted to Pashto. Mian Azad Gul Kaka Khail was the editor of the magazine. A good deal of Pashto prose was published by political workers, and when the anti-British movement was at its height in 1930-31, the younger generation of educated poets, like Rasa, Shaida and others, established a new tradition in Pashto poetry by the introduction of European thought and some progressive ideas. The Khudai Khidmatgar Movement published a monthly journal, *Pakhtoon*, which attracted a large number of anti-British poets and prose writers. Some of the poets and writers who found their way to fame through the Khudai Khidmatgar, include Master Abdul Karim Jalya, Ajmal Khattak, Mehdi Wahmi, Sanobar Hussain Kakaji and Qalandar Mohmand.

A large number of Pashto poets, writers and thinkers came into prominance during the period between 1925 and the partition of the Subcontinent into Pakistan and India in 1947, among whom the following may be mentioned as leading figures: Syed Abdullah Shah, Khadim Mohammad Akbar, Maulana Abdul Qadir, Abdul Akbar Khan Akbar, Mian Ahmad Shah, Abdul Khaliq, Khan Mir Hilali, Mian Syed Rasul Rasa, Fazili Haq Shaida, Samandar Khan Samandar, Sanobar Hussain Mohmand, Amir Hamza Shinwari, Syed Nasrullah Jan Mashwani, H.S. Anwarul Haq, Dost Mohammad Khan Kamil, Qazi Abdul Halim Asar, Abdul Ghani Khan, Master Abdul Karim, Ajmal Khattak, Wali Mohammad Tufan, Sher Mohammad Mainosh, Ashraf Maftoon Yunis, Ayaz Daudzai, Qalandar Mohmand, Hamesh Khalil Tahir Bokhari, Pareshan Khattak, Taqween-ul-Haq Kakakhel, Tahir Kulachvi, Qazi Hidayatullah, Mushtaq Azam, Naseer, Sabir Shabab, Shahab Burq, Pir Gauhar, Majzoob, Javed, Takrim-ul-Haq and Mutiullah Qureshi.

This may be regarded as one side of the picture only. There is another

side to it which is equally important from the point of view of the evolution of the Pashto language and literature in recent years. Pashto programmes broadcast from New Delhi under the British regime and directed towards the Frontier Regions and beyond had to be more effective than perhaps any other programme put across by the British Government in India, who therefore made earnest efforts to look for talent among the Pashtoons. Abdul Karim Mazloom, who had been a warder in the anti-British movement of the Khudai Khidmatgars, was brought in. His Pashto publicity paid his employers rich dividends. A large number of other Pashto poets and scholars were also enlisted for such publicity, both oral and written. The *Nanparoon*, a bi-monthly magazine with its Urdu version of *Ajkal*, were published from New Delhi under the supervision of Mohammad Aslam Khan Khattak with Syed Abdur Rahman as its editor. After a few months of its publicatton, the magazine was entrusted to the supervision of Maulana Abdul Qadir. S.A. Rahman was still the editor. Syed Rasul Rasa and Syed Nasrullah Jan, well-known literary figures, joined the staff. The first two years of the life of the magazine underlined a problem confronting the Pashto language, literature and script. This was a fortunate opportunity for the Pashtoons to serve the cause of their language and its literature. The British Government in India was in dire need of speaking to the Pashtoons through the medium of their own language, and thus Pashto came into its own in a hostile camp. The *Nanparoon*, although a Government publication, had only a specified number of pages for Government publicity, say one-fourth; the rest was devoted to a variety of themes—literary, historical, cultural and religious. This helped to curb the expression of anti-British feeling to some extent, although in fact the Pashtoon writers remained as hostile as ever. A large number of writers and dramatists found the *Nanparoon* a congenial vehicle for the communication of their thoughts. They generally co-operated with Maulana Abdul Qadir, and many volunteered to write on religious, literary, cultural and historical themes.

This brings Pashto literature's march of progress to the last two years before the emergence of the new Muslim State of Pakistan. The Pashtoon's inherent love of Islam and freedom and his animosity against non-Muslim dominaton were some of the potent factors that have always inspired writers and thinkers amongst them. The birth of the new State, though truncated, brought out some of the most powerful poetic expressions of which the Pashto language is capable. The Pashtoon intellectual looks upon Pakistan as a united ideology, and as such Pashtoon poets and writers sing of the glory of Islam, and the freedom of the Muslim State, wherever it may be, and whatever be its composition or complexion.

It is one thing to fight hard to secure freedom from foreign rule, and it is quite another to maintain and uphold it. So while political alignments assumed different complexions and loyalties began to falter after freedom, the poets and writers shared with other citizens of the country the woes and frustrations inherent in such a situation. The progress made by Pashto literature during the first few years of Pakistan was largely due to Government's patronage of the language and to other institutions that worked for

its promotion and development. Many a writer would write for Radio Pakistan, the Information Department of the Government of Pakistan and the Provincial Government. Lovers of the Pashto language wrote and published books, albeit without very bright prospects of their circulation or sale.

Solid support and patronage came from the Provincial Government in 1955, when a Pashto Academy was established at Peshawar. The Academy received an annual grant-in-aid of Rs. 100,000 per annum after the first two years of its existence. So far the Academy, which is affiliated to the University of Peshawar, has published Urdu translations of selections from the works of Khushal Khan Khattak and the *Diwan* of Abdur Rahman Baba. Allama Arshi's book *Urdu men Pashto ka Hissa*, the Urdu translation of *The Pathans*, by Sir Olaf Caroe, etc. Books translated into Pashto include all the works of Iqbal (in Urdu and Persian), rendered in verse; the Pashto version of Musaddas-i-Hali, selected poems of Nazrul Islam; all six volumes of Allama Shibli's and Syed Sulaiman Nadvi's· *Siratun Nabi* and *Seyar-ul-Sahaba*; *The Spirit of Islam* by Sayed Amir Ali; *Islamic Thought and Its Source* by Dr. Muzaffar-ud-Din; Aristotle's *Poetics*. Old and rare manuscripts have been collected and preserved, and many of them have been edited and published.

The preparation of a bilingual and trilingual dictionary (Pashto, Urdu, English) undertaken by the Pashto Academy is a long-range project, which is calculated to bring the Pashto language home to the Urdu-speaking citizens of Pakistan, as well as the English-speaking population of the world. The project is under way.

An outstanding contribution of the Pashto Academy is an innovation in the keyboard of the Urdu typewriting machine, with a view to facilitating the printing of the scripts of all the languages, such as Arabic, Persian, Urdu, Sindhi, Pashto, Panjabi and Baluchi. A combined keyboard catering for the needs of all these languages was evolved by the Pashto Academy and presented to the Central Urdu Development Board for consideration. This keyboard has been finally approved by the Government of Pakistan and is being manufactured. It will be introduced shortly throughout West Pakistan. This is perhaps the first and most constructive achievement of the Pashto Academy in connection with bringing about a kind of scholarly and cultural integration between the various languages of Pakistan.

Coming back to the younger generation of contemporary writers, one finds them writing a powerful poetry, with strong influences both of Western thought and of such writers as Akbar Allahabadi, Hali, Iqbal, Zafar Ali Khan, Mohammad Ali Jowhar, Hasrat Mohani, and other Urdu poets. The mystic tradition also continues, and Hamza Shinwari has written some of the finest *ghazals*, poems and prose on mystical themes. Similarly, research in literary history has found a scholarly exponent in the person of Dost Mohammad Khan Kamil, whose thesis on Khushal Khan Khattak, written in English, is perhaps the first and most authentic account of the poet, his times and the political situation then prevailing.

Valuable contributions to modern Pashto prose have been made by

S. M. Idris, Fazl-i-Haq Shaida, Syed Rasul Rasa. Hafiz, Mohammad Idris, S. A. Rahman, Master Abdul Karim, Abdul Karim Mazloom, Mohammad Aslam Khattak, Syed Nasrullah Jan, Nasrullah Khan Nasar, Abdullah Jan Asar, Mohammad Ajmal Khattak, Abdul Rauf Nowshervi, S.M. Taqween-ul-Haq, Zafar Kakakhel and others. Their prose is simpler and more direct than that of their predecessors.

All told, since the establishment of Pakistan more than 300 books have been published in Pashto, and several hundred writers and poets are creatively active today.

Lastly, in the field of journalism, since Independence Pashto newspapers and journals have increased rapidly in number, including some 28 which are particularly popular today.

Sindhi

Sindhi appears to have been spoken in the Indus delta from time immemorial. It is quite conceivable that the language of the people of Mohenjodaro, as yet unfortunately not deciphered, contained elements of the present Sindhi language.

There is a difference of opinion on whether Sindhi has descended directly from Sanskrit or from a dialect of it. It is clear from the observations of Istakhri and Maqdisi that in their time (tenth century AD), it was the language of Daibul, Mansurah and Multan. Ibn Nadim and Al Biruni (both of the tenth century) have also told us about the original script of the language, which later on took the form of the Arabic *naskh*.

It is not certain when the present language acquired a written form or when its speakers began to compose verses in it. There is no evidence of Sindhi poetry in recorded history until the reign of the Abbasid Khalifa Haroon-ar-Rashid, when a poet from Sind appeared at the court of the Minister Fazl Ibne Yahya Barmaki (d. 808), and recited a verse in his native tongue. The meaning of its Arabic version is :

When glorious deeds are mentioned in our country,
It is your name which is cited as an example.

Unfortunately the words of this verse have been corrupted by Sindhi scribes in such a way that it is impossible to make anything out of it.

After the advent of Islam, a number of Sindhi scholars not only wrote books in Arabic on various aspects of Islam, but also composed poetry of a high standard in that language. It may be assumed that these scholars wrote in their own language also, but no such written works have come down to us to support the assumption. Through verbal tradition, however, we can trace the beginning of refined Sindhi poetry back to the dominance of the Ghaznavids in Sind. During the rule of the Soomras and Sammas, Sindhis produced excellent poetry, and among the earliest and best known poets we find the names of Syed Ali of Thatta, Qazi Qazan of Thatta and their younger contemporary, Shah Abdul Karim of Bulri, the great-grandfather of Shah Abdul Latif Bhitai.

Shah Abdul Latif Bhitai (1689-1752) lived during the Kalhora

period. He perfected Sindhi poetry both in form and in content, and he remains the unchallenged master of Sindhi verse. His poetry is deeply rooted in the soil of Sind, yet it has a universal appeal. So great is the impact of his immortal work on Sindhi literature that one hears its distinct echo in all the poetry produced by later generations. From the time of Shah Latif to the British conquest of Sind, there were a large number of Sindhi poets, such as Muhammad Zaman Luwariwalla, Shah Inayat Rinvi, Abd-ur-Rahim Grohari, Sachal Sarmast, Bedil, Bekas, Sami, Roohal Fakir, Pir Ali Gohar Asghar (Pir Pagaro), Pir Ali Asghar Ali, Pir Ghulam Shah Rashdi and Sabit Ali Shah Sabit, whose *diwans* (works) are still to be found. It is to be noted that Sindhi was the court language in the days of the Soomras, the Sammas, and later on, during the Kalhora and Talpur periods.

The British, with the help of experts, undertook a reform of the Sindhi alphabet with a view to bringing the written language in line with the spoken word. As a result, the alphabet increased from 30 letters to the 52 it has today.

It was in the British period that really good prose began to be produced in Sindhi. Syed Miran Mohammad Shah-I of Tikhir, Diwan Kewal Ram, Ghulam Husain and Akhund Latifullah are among the early prominent prose writers. But Shams-ul-Ulema Mirza Qilich Beg can be rightly called the father of modern Sindhi prose. He is said to have written or translated from other languages over 300 books. There were, however, many contemporaries of Mirza Qilich Beg who were great prose writers in their own right, such as Hakim Fateh Mohammad Sehwani, Kazi Hidayatullah Mushtaque, Allama Asadullah Shah Fida, Abd-ur-Razak Memon, Maulvi Din Muhammad Wafi, Muhammad Siddique Musafir, Muhammad Hashim Mukhlis, Shamsuddin Bulbul, Dr. H. M. Gurbuxani, Beeroomal Mihrchand, Lalchand Amardinnomal, S.C. Shahni, Jethmal Persram, Allama I.I. Kazi, Dr. U.M. Daudpota, Syed Miran Muhammad Shah-II, Pir Ali Muhammad Rashdi, Syed Hussamuddin Rashdi, Usman Ali Ansari, Atta Hussain Shah Moosvi, Abdul Hussain Shah Moosvi, Dr. N.A. Baloch, Mahboob Ali Channa, Mr. Siraj Jamal Akro, Tanvir Akhlaqi , Prof. Lutfullah Badvi, Mr. G. Allana Maulai Shaidai and several others.

Long before British rule, Sindhi poetry had entered a new phase under the influence of Persian poetry. Not only were various forms of Persian poetry adopted by Sindhi poets, but they also borrowed many ideas from Iran which were, strictly speaking, foreign to the soil of Sind and the product of a different cast of mind. It was because of this that the *Ghazal* and some other forms of poetry composed in the Sindhi language did not become popular among the masses. There were, however, some poets such as Mohammad Qasim, Murtazai Thattavi, Gul Mohammad Gul, Syed Gada, Hafiz Hamid, Abdul Hussain Sangi, Zaman Shah and others who, in spite of having adopted Persian forms, derived their inspiration from the classical Sindhi poets. Their work has therefore been popular among the masses as well as people of more sophisticated tastes. There were others who continued to compose poetry in indigenous styles, using the Sindhi language in its purest form. Noteworthy among them are Misree Shah, Mahdee Shah, Hafiz Shah, Sahibdino Shah, Wali Mohammad Laghari,

and Hammal Fakir.

In modern times, the progress of education and the impact of Western civilization have widened the outlook of Sindhi writers and given them new impetus. Research scholars, linguists, poets, playwrights, short story writers and novelists have produced works of real merit, which can be rightly regarded as a great contribution to Sindhi literature.

Among the many literary organizations serving the cause of Sindhi language and literature at present, the Sindhi Adabi Board has achieved international recognition by its solid publication work. The Board has to its credit over 350 published books and the quarterly journal *Mehran* in Sindhi, which was started in1955. There are several daily newspapers being published in Sindhi such as *Ibrat*, *Nawa-i-Sind*, *Khadim-i-Watan* and *Hilal-i-Pakistan*, besides a number of weeklies.

Literary Awards and Prizes

In the ultimate sense, good writing furnishes its own reward ; but concrete expressions of appreciation for quality are welcome incentives for both writers and publishers—particularly in a country where creative writing is not a particularly remunerative occupation. This is the case because the market for literature, and therefore the size of editions, are restricted by low literacy, poor purchasing power and underdeveloped literary tastes among a considerable sector of the affluent.

In this situation, the growing series of literary awards and prizes established since 1958 present a significant contribution to the encouragement of creative writing and good books.

The awards include the following : President's Award for Pride of Performance (Rs. 5,000 to 20,000); Adamjee Prize for Literature (total Rs. 25,000); Dawood Prize for Literature (total Rs. 25,000); National Bank of Pakistan Prize for Literature (total Rs. 25,000); Habib Bank Prize for Literature (total Rs. 25,000); United Bank Prize for Literature (total Rs. 20,000); Guild Awards for Regional Literatures (total Rs. 4,000); Bengali Academy Literary Awards (total Rs. 12,000); Bureau of National Reconstruction (East Pakistan) Awards (total Rs. 6,500); Bureau of National Reconstruction (West Pakistan) Awards (total Rs. 3,000); Majlis-i-Taraqqi-e-Adab Awards (unspecified); Panjab Advisory Board of Book Prizes (total Rs. 2,000); Prizes on Manuscripts for Juveniles (total Rs. 2,500); Book Production Awards of National Book Centre of Pakistan (total Rs. 8,000); Writers' Guild Sixth September Prize for Literature (total Rs. 10,000) Detailed information on these prizes is available from the Pakistan Writers' Guild or the National Book Centre.

Literary prizes awarded for books published in 1969 included the following Urdu and Bengali publications :

1 *Urdu*: The and *Dhanak pas Qadam* (Catraveloque) Begum Akhtar Riaz-ud-Din Adamjee Prize for *Lab-i-Goya* (a collection of poems) by Kishwar Naheed and *Dhanak par Qadam* (a travelogue) by Begum Akhtar Riazuddin ; the Dawood Prize for *Ghalib. ek Mutalia* (a study

of Ghalib) by Mumtaz Husain; *Undlus—Adab-o-Tarikh* (history) by Muhammad Yusuf, and *Baluchistan men Urdu* (research history) by Inamul Haq Kausar; the National Bank Prize (for scientific writings) for *Imraz-i-Khurd Hayatyat* by Ahmad Ali Anwar, *Registani Tiddi ka Hazmi Nizam* by Syed Naeemul Hasan Naqvi, *Aid or Trade* by Yusuf H. Shirazi; the 6th September Prize for *Rag-e-Sang* by Masood Mufti.

2. *Bengali* : The Adamjee Prize for *Papir Santan* (Sinful Child) by Satyen Sen, *Baishakhe Rachita Pangtimala* and *Birotihin Utsava*, both collections of poems by Syed Shamsul Haq; the Dawood Prize for *Lok Kahani Sangraher Itihas* (a history of the collection of folk tales) by Mazharul Islam and *Sahitya-o-Sanskriti Chinta* (Thoughts on Literature and Culture) by Ahmad Sharif; the National Bank Prize for *Banijjik Ayin* (Commercial Law) by M.H. Ali and *Tathya Ganit* (Statistics) by Qazi Mutahar Hussain; the Unitea Bank Prize for *Cheley Buror Chhara* (poems) by Sanaul Haq and *Rahshyer Shesh Nai* (No End to Exploration—a scientific work) by Abdullah Al-Muti Sharfuddin ; the Habib Bank Prize for *Nizamul Mulk's Siasat Nama* (translated from the Urdu) by Zahid Husain and *Dhup-Chhaya* (a collection of short stories translated from the Urdu of Qudratullah Shahab) by Nayamal Basir; the 6th September Prize for *Quaid-i-Azam* by Akbaruddin.

3. In addition, the Habib Bank Prize for English translations from national and regional languages was awarded to *Kafees of Khwaja Ghulam Farid* translated by Gilani Kamran and Aslam Ansari and to *The Big Big Sea* translated by Kabir Choudhury from the Bengali.

For books published in 1970, at the time of printing the *Year-Book* only those for Urdu and for English translations had been announced, and these included the following : Adamjee Prize—*Khakam Badahan* (a collection of essays) by Mushtaq Ahmad Yusufi; Dawood Prize—*Urdu Sindhi ke Lisani Rawabit* (Urdu-Sindhi Linguistic Ties) by Sharfuddin Islahi, *Ruswa ki Novel Nigari* (Ruswa's novels) by Zaheer Fatehpuri, *Hamari Awami Jidd-o-Jihed* (Our National Struggle)by Ashiq Husain Batalvi, *Mazi ke Mazar* (Relics of the Past) by Syed Sibte Hasan, and *Mantaq, Falsafa aur Science* (Logic, Philosophy and Science) by Syed Mohammad Taqi; National Bank of Pakistan Prize—*Finjai aur Mushaba Paude* (Fungi and Similar Plants) by Mohammad Ashraf Malik, *Faulad Par Amal-i-Hararat* (Heat Treatment of Steel) by Syed Shamim Rajaz, and *Islamic Economics: Theory and Practice* by M.A. Mannan; United Bank Prize—*Tot Batot* (poems for children): by Sufi Ghulam Mustafa Tabassum; Habib Bank Prize—*The Laughter of a Slave* (Translated from Shaukat Osman's Bengali, *Kritadasher Hashi*) by Kabir Chowdhury.

Contemporary Art

PICTURESQUE or dramatic visual representation always has been only one of the functions of painting and other visual arts, even when photography, and the machine generally, had not invaded their territory. They—and now photography too—have always been deeply concerned with the perpetuation and communication of meaningful moments of human experience in significant forms composed of visual elements—as literature is composed of words and music of sounds. Since there are many forms of visual expression through which this purpose may be served, the widening experience of modern man in his rapidly changing world has led to a wealth of new and growing experimentation in art. In Pakistan, too, the search for new forms of visual expression has been gathering pace in the sixties; and this general movement is visible in the recent work of the older established generation of painters quite as much as that of the younger generation. In these attempts to establish a dialogue with the contemporary scene, influences of past traditions and folk art merge with new and often obscure feelings generated by the present and its problems and potentials, its perplexities and challenges.

A basic feature of these efforts has been that their products have moved away more and more from the representational idiom to that of abstraction and regrouping visual perceptions: from mirroring the outer world to reflecting the inner response to the outer world. This new developing idiom—despite the verbal interpretations of critics, which are necessarily limited in their reach—often leaves the common man with the feeling





A ceramic work by Kohari.

A painting by Sadequain.



Shakir Ali : *Composition in Calligraphy* (72″ × 72″, 1968).

that its picture gives him no point of reference to truth or meaning or even to skill of execution; and he accordingly tends to reject the work as worthless—a joke, perhaps—or at least incomprehensible. The artist, on the other hand, is in effect asking that his work be viewed without preconceptions, that the viewer should let his eyes see the picture like they see the patterns of nature—directly or through the modern instruments of science—and indeed like the ears listen to music without expecting that its sounds should mean something the way words say what they mean.

A painting, or any other motionless visual object, does offer an immediate total contact—whereas literature, music and dance must necessarily unfold in a temporal sequence—but it also can no more be seen than created in a single moment. It is perhaps partly this deceptive total immediate availability that makes a five-second glance at a painting look away and say, "Now what's that supposed to mean?" Only the outer mechanics of the eye are like that of an instant polaroid camera, the mind that interprets its perceptions takes time to develop the picture in its own kind of dark-room—and may of course never do so if it has neither talent nor training for it. The eye must continue to investigate and supply the receptive mind with visual data if it is to make



An abstract work by Gulgee (95″ × 70″, 1967).

anything of the eye's encounter with the painting. In any case, it is not surprising that any artist worth his salt should expect those who wish to understand his painting to look at them—if not for the hours that they might quite willingly spend over some quite ordinary book, then at least for as long as it takes to listen to some brief musical composition. A painting does not change, but if it is worth anything at all—and this the trained eye can see quite quickly, just as the trained reader can glance through a book and tell whether it might be worth reading or not—it will, given half a chance, call forth changing impressions and dynamic tensions, which may or may not be emotional as well as aesthetic.

There is thus a difficulty of communication when an untrained eye looks at a painting and finds nothing familiar to recognize in it—or, as an Urdu poet has put it, is told by the caption to see a woman and finds that what he can see there is only a vague resemblance to a pineapple. While such a difficulty of communication has in some form always characterized the new creative work of any age, it is now more complex than it has ever been before, just as life, with its basic unchanging elements, has become infinitely more complex than it was just a century ago.

At the same time, it must, however, also be stressed that together with

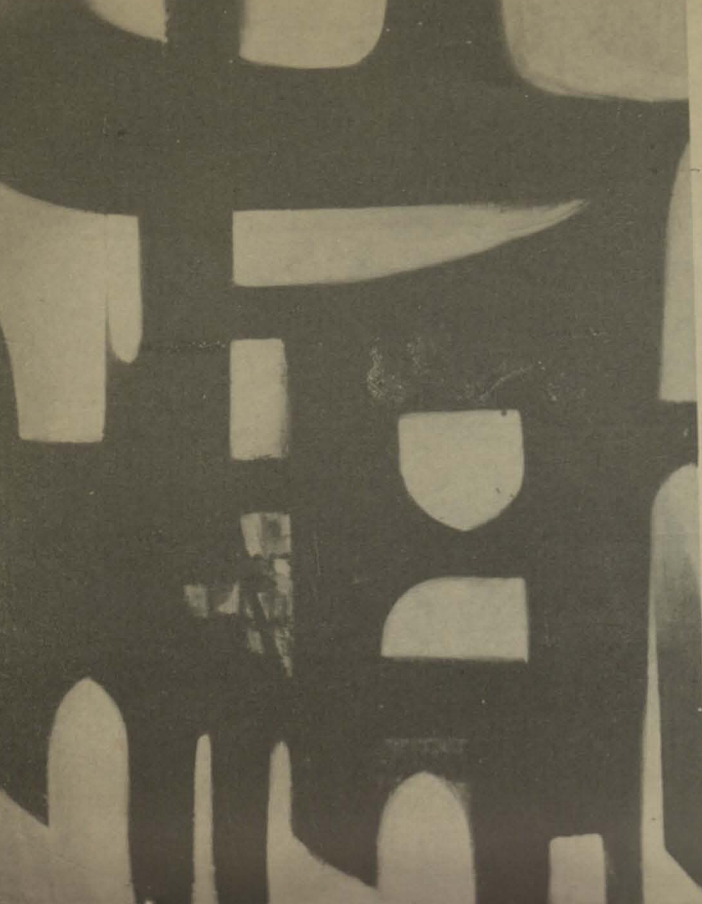


Qamrul Hasan, *Three Sophisticated Maidens*



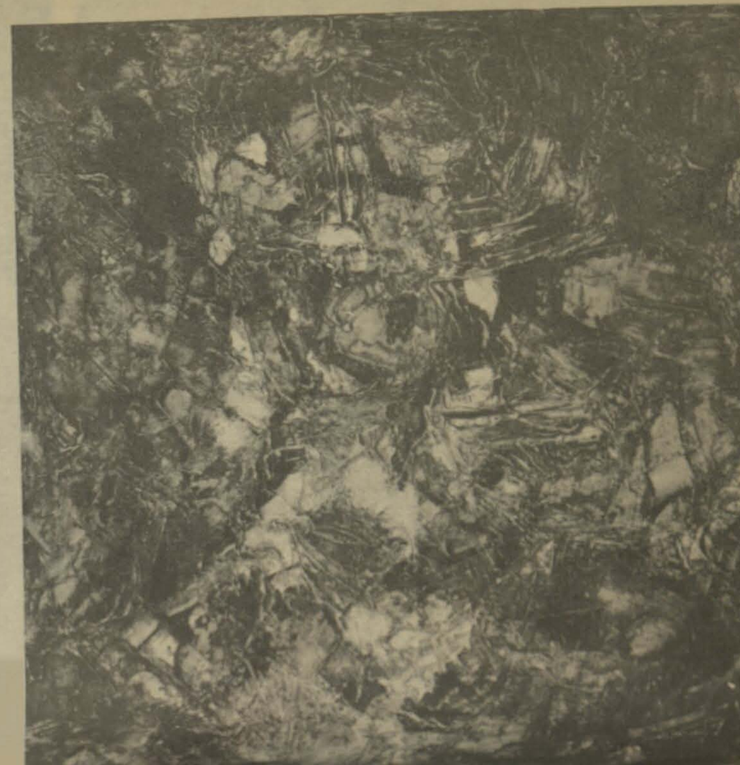
Kohari
Mother and Child.





An abstract composition by Ajmal Husain (*31″ × 44″*, *1962*).

Aminul Islam : *Composition* (24″ × 24″, 1966)





Ali Imam : *The Couple* (20" × 24", 1966).

the tendency towards abstraction, more traditional and more easily understandable art forms also continue to thrive. All told, there is a great variety of trends and much energetic, if not always successful, experimentation, whose general moods vary from the tender and nostalgic to the violent and protesting.

Exhibitions : During the year 1970, numerous solo and group exhibitions were held in Karachi, Dacca and Lahore. And in Karachi alone, which, because of its prosperity, has become a centre for exhibitions by painters from all over the country, some 30 exhibitions were held in the course of this year. In Dacca and Lahore, too, although there were fewer exhibitions, these also provided impressive evidence of lively and promising artistic work and experimentation.

The exhibitions at Karachi included one-man and group showings by both established and young emerging artists from various parts of the country, among whom specific mention may be made of the following: Chughtai, Zainul Abedin, Shakir Ali, Sadequain, Ahmad Parvez, Rashid Arshad, Hamidur Rehman, Zahoorul Akhlaque, Mubinul Azim. Maqsood



Abdur Razzaq : *Interior* (12″ × 9″, 1967).

Shahid Sajjad : *Figure* (24″ × 24″, 1965).





Anwar Maqsood : *Sisters* (22" × 16", 1967).

Ali, Anwar Maqsud, Mansur Aye, Mansur Rahi, Nahid Raza, Shakira Hadi, Hajera Mansur, Ahmed Khan, Haji Mohammad Sharif, and Ustad Allah Bakhsh. In addition, in the first quarter of 1971, there were exhibitions of the works of Ajmal Husain, Mohammad Sardar, and Lubna Latif.

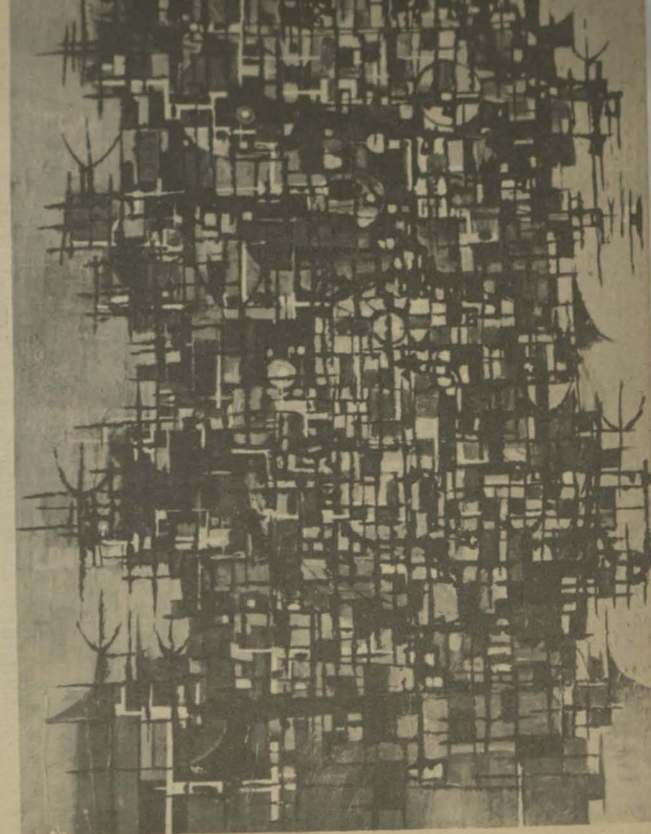
Sadequain slowed down a little on the prodigious pace of his creative output in the previous year, but still held two big shows under the headings of: *Rubaiyat*, in which he combined, his calligraphic art with his own quatrains, a collection of which he also published in an elegantly printed book; and *Sura al-Rahman*, based on verses of the Quran. New experiments in calligraphic art were aslo on view in the exhibition of Rashid Arshad.

It may be recalled that among recent books with reproductions of paintings by Pakistani artists, in 1968/69 there appeared the *Diwan-i-Ghalib*, illustrated by Sadequain (presenting a strong contrast to the Mughal style of illustrations to Ghalib's verse produced by Chughtai in the late thirties under the title *Muraqqa-i-Chughtai*) and a beautiful book of illustrated verses of Iqbal by Chughtai, of which one painting is reproduced in the following pages.

Trends : Apart from the general characteristics already indicated, the trends of contemporary art in Pakistan are those of individual developments rather than of definite movements or schools. Established artists have not formed groups for experimentation in specific art forms which young painters might have joined or followed; and each one of the more promising of the young

A painting by Mobinul Azim.





Safdar Ali : *Moonlight* (23″ × 39″, 1966)

artists is engaged in a basically solitary search for his own personal idiom. In this very brief outline of prevalent trends it is of course not possible to cover all important artists and the current scope of their work; all that can be done is to give fleeting impressionistic indications of some of the significant departures and continuing experimentation.

Shakir Ali has in his recent work been projecting a lyrical freshness into new nuances of tone values and arrangements of volume and planes. Essentially poetical in approach, his art balances humanistic feelings with a complex equation of representative and abstract elements. His calligraphic work glows with an inner light in the vibrating shadows of warm colours.

Zainul Abedin continues to delight us with his pictorial presentation of innocence, simplicity and blissful tranquillity through an expressionistic abstraction that shows a creatively imbibed influence of folk art. In some recent work, he has also depicted village life in East Pakistan in sensitive and can did strokes of the brush that recall his famous sketches and paintings of the Bengal Famine of 1943.

Chughtai, a national institution as an interpreter of Mughal art—in a very personalized manner—continues to weave stylized beauties out of memories, traditions and dreams. The delicacy of his imagination, line and colour saves the nostalgic element in his work from becoming too sweet, and the liveliness of his composition gives a dynamic element to what otherwise might be a little too static.

Murtaza Bashir : *The Wall* (1970).



Qamrul Hasan : *The Sitter* (19" × 26")





Jamil Naqsh : *Despair* (30" × 40").



Kibria : *Painting in Grey Green* (22" × 20", 1964).

Abdul Baset uses simple themes from the daily life of the people of East Pakistan and presents them in an abstracted form with fantastic simplicity and compositional balance. His colours are generally subdued, but also achieve an inner glow through their shaded tonal juxtapositions. The expressiveness of each figure, as well as the painting as a whole, achieves an extraordinary intensity of mood. In recent years, he has also experimented in completely abstract compositions.

Gulgee, while still painting an occasional portrait in the grand representational manner or sketching to show his extraordinary skill as a draughtsman, is now concentrating on large and often unconventionally shaped canvases of abstract painting. In this, attention to fine decorative detail is combined with a sweeping organic effect of what, to use the title of one of his recent canvases, one might call point-counterpoint, which impinges on the eye in a series of total impressions that change from moment to moment in a rhythmical pattern. To get the full feel of these paintings, one must see them from quite close, in parts, as well as from a proper distance, as a whole. In addition, during 1970, Gulgee has also created two magnificent and huge metal shields in copper, brass and silver for the RCD stall at Expo' 70 in Tokyo, and for the Islamic Conference held at Karachi. The beauty of design



Chughtai, *Naqa-i-Laila* (Laila's Messenger).

دیکھ آ کر کوچہ' گریباں میں کبھی قیس تو لیلٰی بھی تو صحرا بھی تو محمل بھی تو

Zainul Abedin, *Flute Player* (31″ × 44″, 1968).





Sadeqain, *Triumph* (1968).

in these shields is matched by the kind of fine craftsmanship that is today becoming increasingly rare.

Qamrul Hasan shows marked influences of folk life and art in many of his paintings and in the choice of his bright colour combinations. He is, however, also experimenting with other forms of abstraction and positive distortion, in which his fine sense of balance and rhythm has a pronounced effect of its own.

Sadequain has expanded the scope of his expressionistic idioms to offer visual comment on the human situation and the life of man in various walks of life, both as an individual and as a member of society. Social conflicts of the industrial age are interpreted through sharp and jagged metallic objects, barbed wire and groupings of spears. His human figures are often presented through wavy masses that give a flowing aspect to a statuesque effect. At his best and most dynamic, Sadequain achieves a heroic interpretation of human endeavours, struggles and aspirations. Decorative calligraphic compositions in magical colour combinations are another aspect of his recent work.

Ghulam Mustafa, besides being a very talented representational artist, has also engaged himself in a variety of experiments. Among these are his re-creation of folk art themes in a modern abstract setting, of which a delightful example is found in the colour reproduction of one of his paintings

An abstract composition by Baset.



given in this chapter.

Ali Imam continues to experiment with subdued tones in challenging exercises of form, structure and spatial relationships. The scholarly precision of his composition and the subtlety of the emotional experience he wishes to convey appear to be so uncompromising that colour seems to be avoided as an extraneous diversion from the point at issue. In this sense, he has almost initiated a school of painting that shuns colour and revels in the supple control of the architectonics of the medium—a role which is likely to be strengthened by his directorship of the new Sind Gallery.

Mubinul Azim has almost entirely given up representational painting in favour of action painting, whose compositions and rhythms are evokative of intricate musical themes and patterns, and of a formalization of external objects, in both his colourful flower series and his experimentation with mixed media. The poetry of colours assumes a dreamlike softness and sparkle, and streaks of colour soar on the canvas like Chinese fireworks.

Murtaza Bashir, in his own words, "is now taking on a re-creation of the legendary heritage left by our forbears in the plastic design of experience". Previously, he had moved from an austere linearaism of cubistic figures and subsequent expressionistic designs of man, bird and fish to 'The Wall', which must be demolished or seen through to glimpse reality reflected by the weather-beaten, peeling distemper and disfigured poster surfaces of these ravaged walls. It is his pre-occupation with reality behind appearance and his attempt to express his abstracted vision of this that probably leads him to insist that he is above all a realist.

Kohari, who has been away in Europe for quite some time now, is one of the finest pictorial painters of Pakistan, presenting a colourfully expressionist view of representational elements taken from the daily life of the common man. In recent years he had devoted himself largely to ceramic creations which achieve a wondrous combination of plastic, tonal and figurative effects. Tiles, vases, jars and other ceramic pieces are formed through surface modelling, drawing and painting. No one before in Pakistan has made use of so many colours in ceramics, of such fine glazes and textural effects and of such sculptured modelling. On his return from Europe, it will be interesting to see how his stay abroad has effected his more recent work.

Ajmal Husain has created some richly imaginative collage experiments, evoking surrealistic images. His precise spatial configurations are free, easy, bold and light. The drama within him has stirred his sense of stage craft, and his 'decor' borders on the realm of fanciful day-dreaming. In his recent retrospective exhibition, he showed a rich series of experiments in various styles and media of painting.

Aminul Islam's metal, glass, mosaic and wood collage adoring the State Bank building at Dacca is a coherent composition of great expressiveness. His recent black and white non-figurative compositional studies are rich in their organic imagery. The harmony of his technical discipline expresses itself in a lovely unending fluency.

Mansur Aye rearranges visual facts in his intense portraits of young



Mansur Aye : *Girl with the Moon* (35″ × 35″).

women, whose faces show only a tinge of melancholy and yet convey a haunting aura of loneliness. He never emphasizes sensuous charms, and his mood remains one of thoughtful contemplation. His blues are darkly heavy, his highlights a mute yellow ochre or yellow green, which impart an unsentimental coolness. Recently his faces and figures haye become more abstract and he has introduced more colour, but a basic representational realism is also retained.

Jamil Naqsh continues with his pigeons, sitting, fluttering and cooing around while love-lorn buxom women sit or recline blinking their melancholy eyes. His mystic blues are as soothing as the fine interplay of his subdued colours. He has, however, moved on from his delicate representational draughtsmanship, to a freer style of bold strokes and an increasing abstraction of forms, which is well illustrated by the colour and black and white reproductions of an earlier and a later work by him included in this chapter.

Bashir Mirza in his recent work has, on the one hand, produced huge oil panels which appear to be painted as vigorous protestations, whose explosive candidness has perhaps been responsible for their exhibition being limited to small circles of art anthusiasts and critics; and on the other, surprised everyone with his entry into the field of Op art, of which the latest series, before his departure for Europe in 1970, was entitled 'Compromise'.

Ahmed Parvez uses scintillating strong primary colours, in oils, water colours and gouaches, to paint abstract flower and plant designs with expressionistic effects. In these, he achieves a fantasy world of colour and form that throbs with an illuminating reality of its own. His abstractions of plant life seem to explode with the first rays of the glowing sun.

Hamidur Rehman has gradually shifted from his elongated figures to non-figurative abstractions showing marks of an aesthetic crisis in his artistic development. His 'Frozen Fire' series of paintings present a flaming vibration of compact spatial relations suggesting flowing variations of mood and emotion.

Rashid Ahmed has exhibited a series of paintings conceived as poems which evoke a response even as they leave an impression of uncomprehended meanings and fantasies. No wonder, he has been heard to exclaim, "I love darkness". However, his mystic obscurity is counterbalanced by a strong fabric of exuberant images in melodious colours.

Maqsud Ali in his first solo exhibition presented traditional and colourful images of various aspects of village life in Sind with lively vividness through the use of geometrical forms in which figures are cast and clothed. He sees the calm and happy aspects of life around him to express pictorial aesthetic values in his carefully composed canvases of subdued but orchestrated colours.

Shahid Sajjad's abstracted figure paintings are characterized by a

Bashir Mirza : *Coronation* (18″ × 18″).





Jamil Naqsh
Girl with Pigeons.
(42" × 36", 1964).

Gulgee, *Horses.*

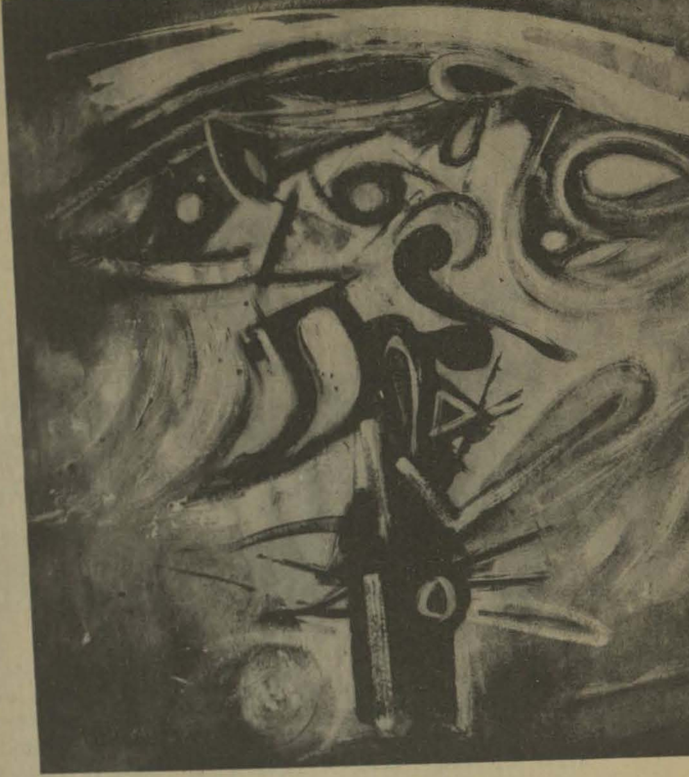




A painting by Ghulam Mustafa.

Shakir Ali
Bird and Moon (20" × 55", 1965).





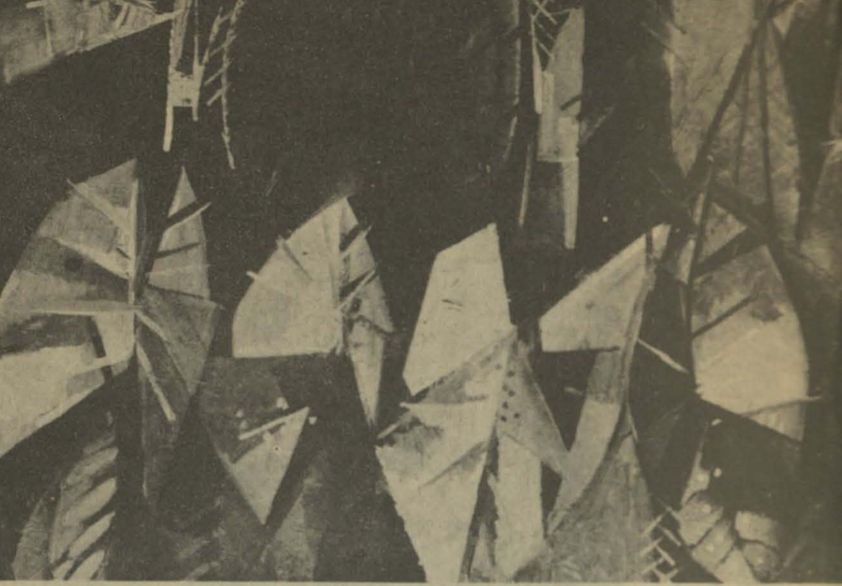
Ahmed Parvez : *Untitled* (18″ × 17″, 1965).

compact sculpturesque treatment of masses that reflects a sculptor's vision; and it is therefore not surprising that he is now concentrating his talent on sculpture. His carved wood figures, though generally not larger than about life-size, often achieve a monumental quality through the closed compactness and direct simplicity with which masses are handled. Sculpture has been a comparatively neglected art in Pakistan, and Shahid Sajjad's new work is a very promising new departure.

Rashid Arshad has experimented very successfully in combining calligraphy and other abstract forms into complex but harmonious compositions. He uses calligraphy only as an element in the totality of his painting, which aims at saying much more than simply adorning the beauty of calligraphy. In doing so, he also presents an interesting contrast to the works of Sadequain and Shakir Ali, which despite their differences from each other, both use other pictorial elements of form and colour largely in a subordinate role to enhance the effectiveness of the calligraphy itself.

In graphic arts, in the narrower sense of etchings, engravings, aquatint, mezzotint etc., a considerable amount of work has been done by Chughtai, Sheikh Ahmed, Gulgee, Zahoorul Akhlaque, Bashir Mirza, Saeed Akhtar, Shahid Sajjad and Naz Ikramullah, although the last two years have not been particularly fertile in this field.

A major exception to this was the exhibition of graphics by Zahoorul



Qayyum Chowdhury : *Foliage* (36″ × 24″).

Akhlaque shortly after his return from a stay in Europe. These show a very original and vibrant use of colour combinations and present strong patterns that are full of movement and suggestive of a variety of moods beyond words.

Representational painting and landscapes continue to be produced side by side with these more complex trends, though largely by the younger painters and students of art, particularly at the Fine Arts Department of the Panjab University. Established painters in this field include Jamil Ahmad, Ustad Allah Bakhsh, Haji Mohammad Sharif, Zulqarnain Haider, and the portraitists, Askari and Sajjad.

Other artists who are experimenting in significant new forms include Mohammad Kibria, Anwarul Haq, Saeed Akhtar, Qayyum Chowdhury, Shemza, Jahangir, Safdar Husain, Eqbale Mehdi and Irfan.

Major Institutions of Art : Despite financial and administrative difficulties, work and training continued to progress energetically at the following major institutions of art in the country; East Pakistan College of Arts and Crafts, Dacca; National College of Arts, Lahore; Fine Arts Department of the Panjab University; the Central Arts Institute of the Arts Council of Karachi; the Karachi School of Arts at Nazimabad; the Institute of Arts and Design, Karachi. In addition, *The Gallery*, the *Pakistan Gallery*, and the new *Sind Gallery* in Karachi also help to encourage and promote young talent, as well as arranging exhibitions for established artists.

A major event in the development of the institutional infrastructure for art was the laying of the foundation-stone of a National Art Gallery, estimated to cost Rs. 2.5 million, by President Yahya Khan at Islamabad in 1969. To be completed in about three years from now, the National Gallery will be managed by the Government-sponsored Society of Contemporary Art, which has organized several important exhibitions of the nation's painters.

Folk Arts and Crafts

THERE IS a sense of beauty and wonder in the common stream of consciousness of a people that finds creative expression through their folk arts and crafts. Thus the aesthetic sensibilities of the people of Pakistan are at least as vividly expressed in its folk arts and crafts as in its more sophisticated artistic creations. While each of these cultural sectors has influenced the other, it is primarily the latter that has drawn inspiration from the former.

The feeling for form, design and colour is best displayed in the pottery, the carpets, the hand-woven textiles, the articles made of marble and carved wood, the village toys and dolls, and the brass and silver ware of Pakistan. The artistic sense and loving care with which these things are fashioned make them a joy to use and behold. The carpet and textile designs, together with the more sophisticated art of calligraphy in the Arabic script, may well be regarded as forerunners of modern abstract art in the sense that they use dynamic patterns of colour to convey pictorial values with hardly any representational functions. The basic forms of the pottery of Hala and Multan also show the continuing influence of both ancient and more recent tradition. The water utensils that village women today carry so gracefully on their heads in East and West Pakistan were probably carried in similar fashion in the days of Mohenjodaro and Harappa.

Folk songs and dances reflect a wide range of moods under the varying conditions of life in different parts of the country. The coming of the rains and the sowing and harvesting seasons are popular themes in all parts of Pakistan; but in East Pakistan there are innumerable boat songs, and floods and cyclones feature significantly in folk dances and songs. In the wintry regions of West Pakistan, songs of spring hold a special place; and in general, both songs and dances tend to give vigorous expression to the joy of living,



A stage presentation of a festive dance of the Moorangs, a tribe of the Chittagong Hill Tracts.

Embroidered quilt from East Pakistan.



A performance of the jhoomar dance of Sind.



as seen in the *Luddi*, *Jhoomar* and *Bhangra*. The *Khattak* dance of the Pathans is a martial dance in which only men participate.

Old village tales are woven into fascinating legends. Thus the story of Hir and Ranjha, ill-fated lovers of the Panjab, has gripped the popular imagination and been immortalized in the verse of Waris Shah. And in East Pakistan, the poet Jasimuddin and several others after him have been directly influenced by the rich folk ballads of the region.

While the radio continues to play its role in making the folk songs of different regions familiar on a national scale, the more recently introduced television has added the opportunity of giving a visual presentation of folk arts to townspeople of both zones of the country. As this form of communication develops, it will undoubtedly play an increasingly significant part in bringing people of different regions closer together, sharing each others joys and sorrows, hopes and fears, problems and aspirations.

Handicrafts

The handicrafts of a country are vital expression of the culture they represent. In any society that takes pride in these crafts, a genuine love of beauty manifests itself through both the creative hands of the craftsman and those who give a place to his products in their daily life.

Rapid industrialization has in the past threatened the continuing existence of such craftsmanship and its rich heritage; and for quite some time after Independence, both the demand and the production of handicrafts had unfortunately begun to decline. In recent years, this process has been progressively reversed, and even machine-made products—particularly textiles and carpets—are visibly influenced by the high standards of design and craftsmanship characteristic of handicrafts. Government efforts have joined hands with private endeavour to achieve this effect. The Second Five-Year Plan bewailed the past neglect of handicrafts, and allocated Rs. 250 million for the development of small industries. The Third Plan's governing principles for the development of small industries specifically included the aim "to preserve and promote traditional arts and crafts"; and in the Plan period Rs. 170.45 million were invested in small industries' promotional schemes (against an allocation of Rs. 287.81 million). Re-iterating the basic objective, the Fourth Plan has allocated Rs. 255 million for such promotional schemes.

Textiles : Exquisite colourful fabrics of silk and cotton have been made by weavers of the Subcontinent since ancient times. There was hardly any technique or art in this field that was not known to them. Cotton—a word which it is not so generally known comes from the Arabic *qutn*—was known as 'sindhu' by the Babylonians and 'sindon' by the Greeks, suggesting the origins of a prized variety in the Sindhu Valley (Sind). It has also been said that the fine muslin of Dacca, referred to as 'the woven air of Dacca', adorned the beauties of Babylon and Greece and Rome and wrapped the mummies of Egypt. This muslin, which had such suitably musical names



Girl operating a handloom in the Chittagong Hill Tracts.

for its varieties as *aab-e-rawan*, *sarbati*, *sangati*, *sarkarali*, *shabnam* and *malmalkhas*, was woven up to a maximum of 180 miles from a mere pound of cotton. A combination of industrialization and systematic suppression led to the extinction of this craft by the end of the nineteenth century.

However, in spite of modern textile mills, the spinning wheel remains an essential article of a village maid's trousseau, and hand-woven cottons (khaddar) are still used for daily wear. These are either block-printed or beautifully embroidered. In the northern part of West Pakistan woollen cloth is also handwoven.

The most beautiful of Dacca muslins these days is the *jamdani*, in which intricate designs are woven into muslin by the use of a separate shuttle, producing the effect of embroidery. The main varieties of *jamdani* are *bootidar*, with small floral designs; *tercha*, with diagonal designs; *jalor*, with a network of floral patterns; *pannahdar*, with a pearl-string design. Silk and raw-silk textiles produced in Rajshahi are also of excellent quality.

Sind and Multan are known for their beautiful *khais* (used as bedcovers or wraps), *lungi* (used as turbans or sarongs), and *daryai* or *sussi* (striped material in cotton or silk).

Among the richest handloom products are the brocades. of which the most prized is *kimkhwab*—the fabric of dreams. It is produced by inter-weaving silk and gold or silver thread in a rich variety of colours and floral patterns. Lahore, Khairpur and Karachi are now famous for their excellent brocades and silk *saris*.

Printing and Dyeing : Various forms of hand printing and dyeing textiles in traditional designs and bright colours are popular throughout Pakistan. Sind is famous for its *bandhanu*—a tie-and-dye process used for *dupatta* (light feminine shawl) and *shagra* (shirt) materials. The process of tying is usually done by women. The patterns are generally geometric arrangements of dots, squares or circles in vivid green, red, yellow and indigo. Elephants, peacocks and dancing figures are some of the other motifs used.

The method of resist printing is commonly used all over Pakistan, both with block stamping and brush work. In villages, the resist consists of cow or goat dung. The multipurpose *ajrak*, in which the predominant colours are dark blue and maroon with a sprinkling of white, comes in a variety of designs, and is a most popular print with tourists as well as Sindhis themselves. Northern areas of West Pakistan are well-known for their calico-printed *lehafs* (coverlets) and *chaddars* (shawls), which have distinct Persian influences in designs and colours.

Peshawar is the home of the *khosi* method of printing textiles with wax. Another form of textile printing, found mainly in Sind, is *khari* or tinsel printing. The process consists of printing the design by means of a wooden block using gum or lac: before the gum or lac dries, it is dusted with coloured and silver and gold powder.

Together with the traditional designs for hand-printed silk, new experiments in designs with basically the same techniques of printing are be coming more and more frequent for silk *saris*.

Embroidery : Embroidery in cotton, silk, wool, gold and silver thread has a proud and long-standing tradition in Pakistan, with distinct styles and types of design in different regions of the country. Only the gold and silver embroidery—*badla* and *karchoob*—do not exhibit any special regional characteristics.

Embroidery is the folk art of women, and the basic material used is hand-spun and hand-woven cotton. This material is generally embroidered in fixed patterns and colours, but each piece has its own individuality.

Swat is famous for its *kashida* embroidery. The background is generally black with silk floss embroidery, usually in deep pink or red, but also in rich green and white, in orange and white or other, newly adopted, colour combinations, designed in geometrical patterns. *Dori* work, or braid embroidery, is very effectively displayed on *choghas* (long woollen coats). And Swati quilt work has been adapted for ladies' bags and table mats.

Kashida and *Julabatan* embroideries, once proud and thrivingly practised crafts of Dacca, are at present comparatively rare. Here *kashida* refers to embroidery on cotton or silk materials with *mooga* or *tassor* silk, and *julabatan* to gold and silver thread embroidery on muslin. One can only hope that further private and public encouragement might fully revive these arts.

Phulkari and *bagh* embroideries are specialities of the Hazara District. Although *phulkari* (flower) and *bagh* (garden) designs may have originated from flowers and gardens, the designs are essentially geometric and abstract. The embroidery on *khaddar* with silk floss in darning stitches is worked entirely from the reverse. *Bagh* is the richer of the two, with embroidery covering the entire background and giving the effeet of woven tapestry. *Phulkari* shawls have motifs dispersed all over the material, with elaborately designed borders.

Traditional Baluch and Sindhi embroidery presents fascinating works of art in colour, and clearly stands out among the best in the world. Baluch embroidery alone has 118 different basic designs, and their *pusks* (shirts), table and tray cloths, and caps amply justify this claim. All major tribes have their own designs, and most of the stitches are worked from the reverse. Minute mirrors are used as an additional embellishment, but in a more sophisticated manner than in the embroidery of Sind.

Sindhi embroidery consists of a variety of stitches, repetitive geometric and floral patterns, and motifs using abstracted forms of birds and animals. All elements are incorporated in one organic whole, giving a rich effect. Though tribal and local influences are responsible for the dominating characteristics, yet some pieces bear distinct traces of Arab, Turkish and Persian influences. Little mirrors are incorporated to form an integral part of the design. The colours used in upper Sind generally tend to be brighter than those employed in lower Sind.

Rallis and Kanthas: Sind is also famous for its colourful patchwork quilt called *ralli*, made from old, dyed pieces of cotton cloth. The basic design is a multicoloured check *tukri*. Embroidery in silk, gold and silver thread,



A performance of the Bhangra folk dance of the Panjab.

beads, shells and tassels is often used to add ornament to the *ralli*. While in central Sind the designs are multicoloured, there is a preference for black and white designs in lower and upper Sind. A special type of *ralli* in lower Sind, known as *kanbari*, is created by stitching a variety of coloured threads instead of assembling a patchwork.

The *kantha* of East Pakistan is a quilt made of layers of pieces from discarded *saris* stitched together and embroidered with coloured threads pulled out from the borders of *saris*. The motifs are floral, animal and human figures, generally executed in red, black, yellow and blue colours. The chief stitches used are darning, satin, loop—and stem and split for the outline.

Leather embroidery is a popular medium for decorating shoes, handbags and horse and camel gear. The embroidery is worked on pieces of dyed or natural-colour leather with a hooked needle (*bar*). The thread is introduced from the reverse side producing a chain stitch. This gives a flat yet bold decorative result. Sind and Baluchistan excel in general leather embroidery, but for shoes, each region of Pakistan has its own specially attractive style of embroidery with gold and silver and coloured thread.

Carpets : The ancient art of weaving carpets undoubtedly reached a high



Khattak dance of the North-West Frontiers.

point in the Subcontinent when the Emperor Akbar introduced the craft of making pile carpets in Lahore with the help of Persian weavers. The correct term for the woollen pile carpet is *ghilim* or *ghaleen*, of which the *ghilims* are distinguished by their geometric designs, rich colours and long staple wool. Also, the *ghilim* made of short staple wool, although thicker than the *ghaleen*, is not as soft.

Pakistani wool is particularly suitable for spinning low-count yarn used in carpet weaving; and the country's pile carpet industry, backed by an abundance of skilled workers and consumer encouragement, outside as well as within Pakistan, has resulted in a rapid growth of factories around Karachi, Hyderabad, Multan, Quetta, Lahore and Peshawar. In several styles both the design and the texture of Pakistan's hand-made carpets of today stand comparison with the best made anywhere.

In addition to pile carpets, *namdas*, *farshis* and cotton *darees* or *shatrangis* are also made for use as floor coverings. The felt carpets or *namdas* of Kashmir, Baluchistan and Swat are made of pressed sheep, goat or camel wool and ornamented by embroidery (a craft widely practised in the environs of Rawalpindi) or aplique work—or alternatively with, dyed wool pressed into the background. Baluchi women weave *farshi* carpets with piles of camel and goat hair, the latter lending a peculiar lustre to the finished product. Geometric designs are woven in through horizontal bands of orange, brown and ivory white, mostly on a deep madder ground. *Darees*

and *shatrangis* have a thick but pileless fabric woven with cotton or processed jute fibre (also used for inexpensive pile carpets), generally with a simple design in stripes or checks.

Pottery: The potter at his wheel is a common and yet constantly fascinating sight in every village of Pakistan. When left to himself—uninfluenced by modern vulgarisms or ill-digested Western forms—it is always the beauty of from, the perfect line established by tradition, that informs his hands as he shapes his utensils and vases. Ornamentation is generally subordinate to form, and decoration is used mainly to bring out the dignity of form.

The thin clay pottery called *kaghazi* (paper thin)—the ultimate in the potter's craft—is produced in Bahawalpur. The elegant forms of this pottery are characteristically embellished by lattice designs in open cutwork.

Unglazed pottery used in everyday life is either left plain or decorated with painting before or after firing, or by pressing out a design with a die before the article is completely dry. Sind is famous for painted pottery in which only two colours, black and maroon, are used before firing.

Khulna, in East Pakistan, specializes in the black pottery which gets its colour by being kept in choked steam produced by slow-burning cow dung and straw in the potter's oven. After this process, the vessels are first washed and then sprinkled with powdered mango-tree bark before being fired.

Bahawalpur, Rawalpindi and its environs also produce colourful painted pottery—the painting being done after firing. *Shawkhir hanri*, a special jar made in Rajshahi to present sweets as a gift on festive occasions, is painted with designs of fish, elephant or floral patterns in bright yellow, red and blue.

The glazed pottery of Pakistan, which dates back to the thirteenth century, has obvious traces of Persian influence, and its use in architectural decoration, such as mosaic and tiles, was an exclusively Muslim contribution to the architecture of the Subcontinent. Fine examples of such pottery are today found in Hala, Multan and Peshawar.

The Peshawar pottery is the simplest in form, but is successfully adapting a variety of modern designs for vases and a number of articles for daily use. In the traditional pottery, deep and light brown, dark and light green are the most popular colours.

While few potters of the Ryer Bazar—once famous as a potter's village in Dacca—still practise their craft of excellent quality glazed pottery with raised floral designs in earth colours, the East Pakistan College of Arts and Crafts is engaged in extensive experimentation with pottery. The work done here may in time lead to a revival and renewed popularity for ceramic wares.

Decorative tiles made in Sind and Multan contain floral and geometric designs in turquoise, dark blue, light green, brown, yellow and white. Usually no more than two, and at most three, colours are used in one design. The design is first painted in a whitish slip and then in colour.



A Koftgari craftsman at work in Karachi.

Woodwork: The tradition in woodwork—such as furniture, carving, inlay, lac turnery, musical instruments and toys—is a very ancient art. As early as the reign of the Emperor Akbar, palace furniture was characterized by elaborate carving or was mounted or inlaid with gold, jewels or ivory. The wood was always shellacked and polished.

In the Panjab and Frontier regions, it is not uncommon to find, even in small villages, carved doors and pillars on which floral designs are delicately chiselled with considerable skill and beauty.

Wooden sculpture of a high standard is an integral part of the cottage architecture of rural East Pakistan. The sculpture is to be found mainly in cornice brackets, where the head and trunk of an elephant or two arm-in-arm women are common motifs. The bows and sterns of boats are often decorated with artistically carved animal figures. East Pakistan is also the home of craftsmen who make musical instruments of a high standard.

The wood carving of Kashmir is world-famous. Floral designs in engraved or raised work, accurate to the smallest detail, are seen delicately wrought on cigar and jewellery boxes, trays, cabinets, table tops and folding screens. And today there are many fine Kashmiri craftsmen at work in little cottage industries in Karachi, Lahore and Rawalpindi. Peshawar excels in the minute and elaborate work of wood carving called *pinjra* work.

Chiniot is known for brass inlay. The designs are bold and have a freedom of execution which is absent from the more or less similar work of the rest of the Panjab. The inlay is not confined to wire, but often includes thin plates of metal cut to the required shape. Veneer and marquetry, using buffalo horn, ivory and, more recently, plastic, are also very popular. This craft when applied to boxes, trays and table tops is often mistaken for inlay work.

Different kinds of painted or lacquered wooden toys of Sunargaon, East Pakistan, depicting animals, still retain their old charm and form.

True lacquer work, an indigenous craft, should really be called lac-turnery. In this, lac is not applied as paint or varnish but by means of heat generated by friction. Ornamenting wood with lac demands intricate and artistic manipulation by the craftsman. Khanot (Hala) and Kashmore, in Sind, are famous for this craft, which has retained its traditional designs. It is used to decorate bedsteads, *pinjos* (tables) and *piris* (chairs). Designs of Khanot are more colourful, though not as intricate as the finer quality work done in Kashmore. Jhang and Sargodha districts are also known for lac turnery work. Here, mainly two colours are used, the darker for the base and the light colour for the design. Sometimes small mirrors are also utilized.

Metal Craft: The craftsmen of Pakistan are not only proficient in the working of precious metals, but also use all their skill and ingenuity in the production of articles of daily use in brass and copper, which offer a wide scope of technique and design.

Enamelling, or application of coloured glaze or enamel inlay to metal, is mainly done by craftsmen of Multan, Karachi and Hyderabad. The enamel is burnished into previously engraved designs. In Kashmir and some parts of the Panjab, two designs of enamelware in base metals are very popular: the floral rosette and the arabesque style. The latter consists of elongated figures which give the effect of geometrically arranged Arabic inscriptions, but are actually interlaced floral scrolls.

Repousse work in base metals is practised in the Panjab, Peshawar and Kashmir. In the Panjab area, the designs are in low relief with clean outlines. In Kashmir, elaborate repousse in low relief is common. There may also be pierced ornamentation in the Persian style. Peshawar metal-ware is conspicuously arabesque, and the technique is delicately chased, pierced or incised. Copperware is characterized by the absence of lac filling or any other pigment, and the shapes are often reproductions of famous Persian originals.

In East Pakistan, raised decorations are not popular on domestic

utensils, and incised designs are adopted. The patterns are floral or geometric, with popular fish and bird motifs. Incising is carried out with a chisel to make the dotted lines form a pattern.

Damascening, as its name suggests, had its home in Damascus. It is the art of encrusting one metal into another in the form of wires, which by undercutting and hammering is thoroughly and beautifully incorporated with the metal that it is intended to ornament. It was originally brought to this part of the world by the Emperor Akbar to decorate weapons.

Damascening, or *koftgari*, in silver is called *bidri*. Today Gujrat and Sialkot are renowned centres of *koftgari*, producing domestic articles, betel boxes, and *hookah* bases.

Copper and brass articles, though less intricately engraved, are seen in the *kasera* bazars or copper markets of Peshawar, Quetta, Lahore, Rawalpindi and Karachi.

Jewellery : Folk jewellery is made of silver, and it is found in a wide range and variety in each region of Pakistan. Ornamentation is either raised, chased or applied. Designs are chiefly floral or geometric, though animal motifs of fish, lion or elephant heads are also used. The Muslim emblem of crescent and star appears prominently in ear-rings. Chunky and crude in detail, folk jewellery is refined in form.

The jewellery of Chitral, Kaghan and Swat is clearly influenced by Graeco-Roman and Buddhist cultures. The neck ornaments are heavy and have a fringe of silver coins or beads. A single blue stone is generally fixed in the pendent. There is a pronounced absence of stone settings in jewellery of the Frontier.

The folk jewellery of East Pakistan has a somewhat heavy artistic form. Filigree work of a high quality is produced at Dacca.

Jewellery in Sind, Baluchistan and the Panjab has a definite family resemblance, though local products retain their regional names. The silver jewellery of the Panjab is identical in design and execution with the gold jewellery of the towns.

In Sind, Bahawalpur and Multan, silver ornaments enamelled in light or dark blue, red, black and yellow are made. The method of enamelling may be described as champleve in so far as the enamel is laid in hollows between raised lines of metal. These are, however, not produced by engraving but by hammering the silver plaque into a steel die or *thappa*.

A crude form of *kundan*—setting uncut precious or semi-precious stones in gold or silver so that each gem, irregularly cut and mellow, adds to the lustre of the other—is produced in Sind. This technique is made available to lower income groups by using bits of glass instead of gems. Colour is added by inserting coloured tinsel under the pieces of glass.

Basketry, Cane Furniture and Matting: Date palm, cane, bamboo, wild rushes and wheat stalks growing across the temperate and tropical landscape of the country have helped to rear the craft of basketry, mat weaving and cane furniture.

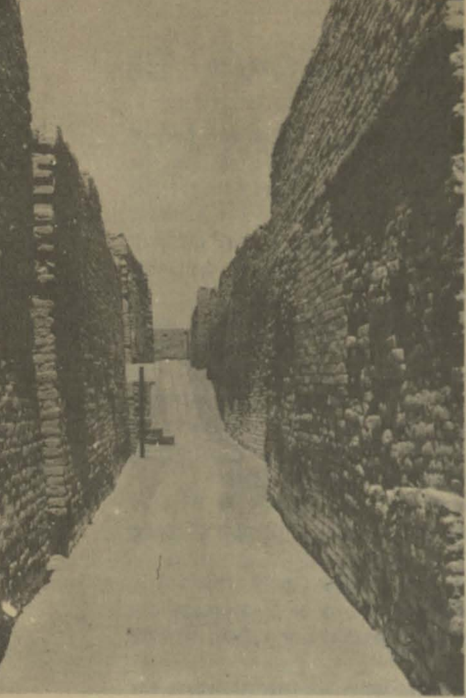
The *dabbi* (bread basket) of wheat stalk, *chhajj* (winnowing fan) of *kana* reeds, and the *rafis* basket with *jali* or lattice-work designs are the best example of Sindhi basketry. *Peesh* (dwarf palm) leaves and fibre provide the raw material for *savas* (*sandals*) and bags from Baluchistan. The methods and materials for ornamenting these articles are as varied as the different ways of weaving. Shells, beads and coloured tassels are used to ornament the baskets of Sind, Baluchistan and the Panjab.

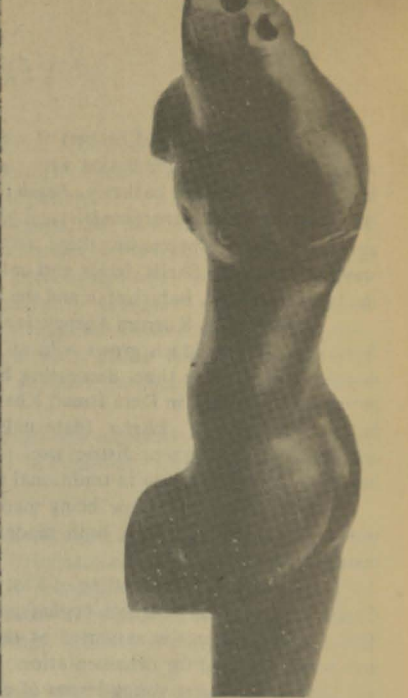
Alizai, in the Kurrum Agency, is a flourishing centre of basketry made from *mazri* grass, which grows wild all the year round. Men and women weave in their spare time, decorating baskets with tassels and geometric patterns. Only men in Dera Ismail Khan make the famous snake charmer's baskets and caps of *khajur* (date palm), using traditional colours for decoration. The Hazara district uses *teelis* (stalks of ripe wheat) to weave baskets, dyeing the *teelis* in traditional colours to form the patterns.

Cane furniture is now being made in increasing quantity in West as well as East Pakistan, and both modern and traditional designs of good taste are available..

The basketry and matting of East Pakistan displays great artistic skill. Cane, bamboo reeds, *pals* and *bogla* (special grasses) are basic raw materials. The weaving process is as varied as the raw materials, and dyes, cowries and beads are used for ornamentation.

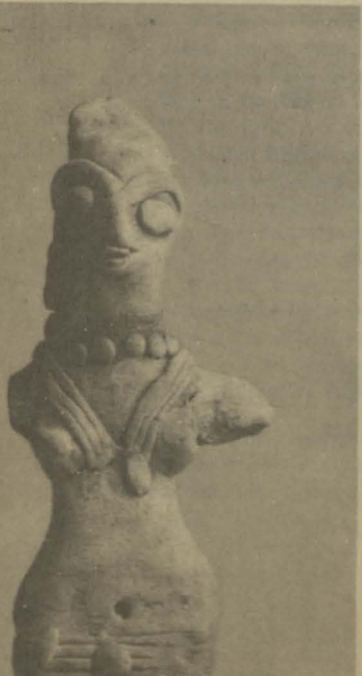
Only the finest young leaves of elephant grass are used to weave the famous *shitalpati* (mats used as bed-spreads in summer). Sylhet produces the best raw material and Munshiganj has the best weavers. *Masaland* is also a kind of matting woven in Khulna. The matting is either plain, or dyed leaves are interwoven to form patterns.





A lane in Mohenjodaro. *A male torso, Harappa.*

Terracotta figurines from Mohenjodaro.





Archaeology

ARCHAEOLOGY is the scientific study of the relics and artefacts of man found in deposits and ruins, and involves the finding, interpretation and preservation of these materials which delineate prehistoric life and supplement the documentary material of historic eras. Every nation takes pride in discovering and preserving the landmarks and material evidences of its past heritage, of its successive stages of evolution and advancement. The historical monuments, artefacts and art objects that are thus preserved and interpreted reveal the basic structure and spirit of a civilization and lend strength to the inheritors of its traditions in their own endeavours and aspirations. This cultural wealth is therefore also an ideal means of education for the common man. As the custodian of this cultural heritage, the Department of Archaeology in Pakistan has been striving hard to preserve the historical and cultural wealth of the country for the benefit of its people, of tourists from abroad, and of scholars in universities and other research organizations.

The main archaeological sites in Pakistan in 1947 were Mohenjodaro and Harappa, the two capital cities of the Indus Valley Civilization; Taxila, the main site of Gandhara; and Paharpur in East Pakistan, with its Buddhist monastery, one of the biggest in Asia. Most of these sites were excavated by, or under the direction of, Sir John Marshall, whose main contribution in the field of protohistory is the discovery of the Indus Valley Civilization.

The first study of Stone-Age remains in this country was made by de Terra in 1935 in the Soan Valley of Rawalpindi District. After that until Independence came, no further systematic attempt was made to discover palaeolithic cultures in Pakistan and correlate them to similar cultures outside the country. Again, while Sir Aural Stein and others carried out extensive exploratory surveys in Baluchistan for the prehistoric period, the Neolithic

Age was somewhat ill-defined and remained almost unexplored.

The Indus Valley Civilization represented only its mature phase in the Chalcolithic period, and very little was known about its earlier stages. The genesis and efflorescence of this world-famous civilization were completely unknown, and so was the cause of its destruction.

During the periods between the invasion of the White Huns, in the fifth century A.D., and the appearance of the Muslims, in the eighth century A.D., the political history of Pakistan's territories was shrouded in tradition and folklore.

About the early Islamic period there was a twofold problem. In the first place, there was a complete absence of archaeological material for comparative study to supplement written documents. Scholars working in the field, therefore, had no choice but to rely largely on written sources. Secondly, very little was known about the art and architecture of the early Muslims in the Subcontinent.

Similarly, archaeological problems in East Pakistan, too, were manifold. Constant changes of its great hydrographic system and difficult communications due to periodical floods, dense forests and marshy lands had defied all attempts at proper archaeological investigation.

After Independence, these problems were tackled and explorations for Stone-Age remains were undertaken by the Department of Archaeology in the Potwar region near Rawalpindi and at Rohri in the Sind area. Encouraging results included the discovery of new sites of Palaeolithic culture. For further explorations of prehistory, the Department has planned a comprehensive survey not only of Baluchistan but also of the Sind and Panjab areas, and has accordingly carried out some surveys with the collaboration of a number of foreign archaeological missions.

To explore the earlier phases of the Indus Valley Culture, the Department made an earnest attempt in 1950 to reach the water-logged earlier levels of Mohenjodaro; but with the available machinery, the attempt did not succeed. New light has, however, been thrown on this Culture by the 1955 excavations at Kot Diji, where, luckily, there is no problem of water-logging. The Kot Diji Culture proved to be an early phase of the Indus Valley Civilization. This was indeed a landmark in the history of Pakistan's archaeology, as it opened a new vista for investigation.

Similarly, excavations at Mahasthangarh and Mainamati, in East Pakistan, helped the reconstruction of cultural, political and social history. The discovery of a number of inscribed copper-plates at Mainamati has helped to complete the genealogy of the celebrated Buddhist Chandra dynasty which ruled over the eastern region of East Pakistan during the tenth-eleventh centuries A.D. Excavations at Mainamati have added a new line of Buddhist rulers—the Devas of East Bengal—to the known royal dynasties of East Pakistan, in the seventh-eighth centuries A.D.

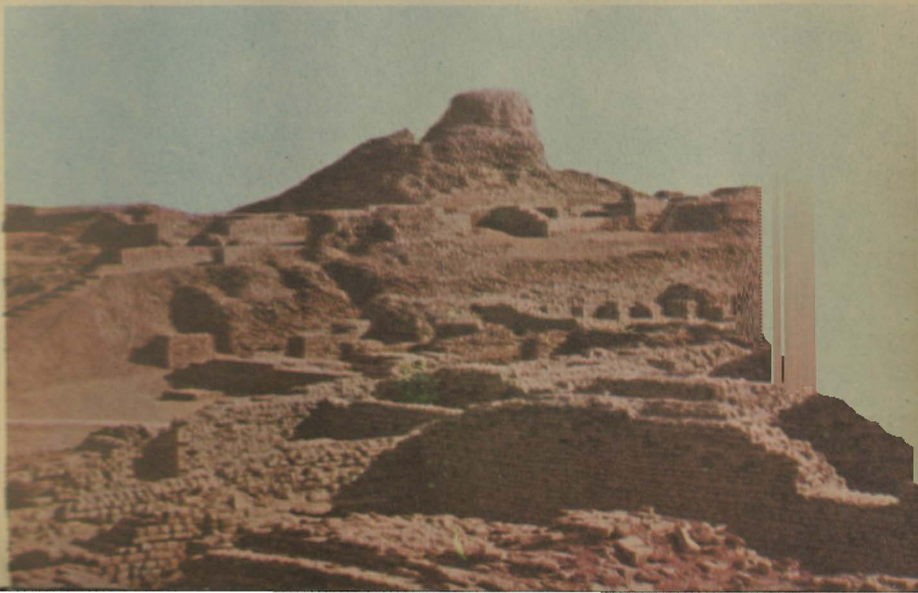
The pioneer excavations at Banbhore, and the classification of its early Islamic pottery and antiquities, have opened new possibilities for scholars, and it is for the first time that material has become available for comparative study. It has also brought to light a well-laid plan of a fortified

Dancing girl, Mohenjodaro. *Head of an old man, Mohenjodaro.*



Copper utensils

Below: Mohenjodaro Citadel, with Kushana Stupa in background.



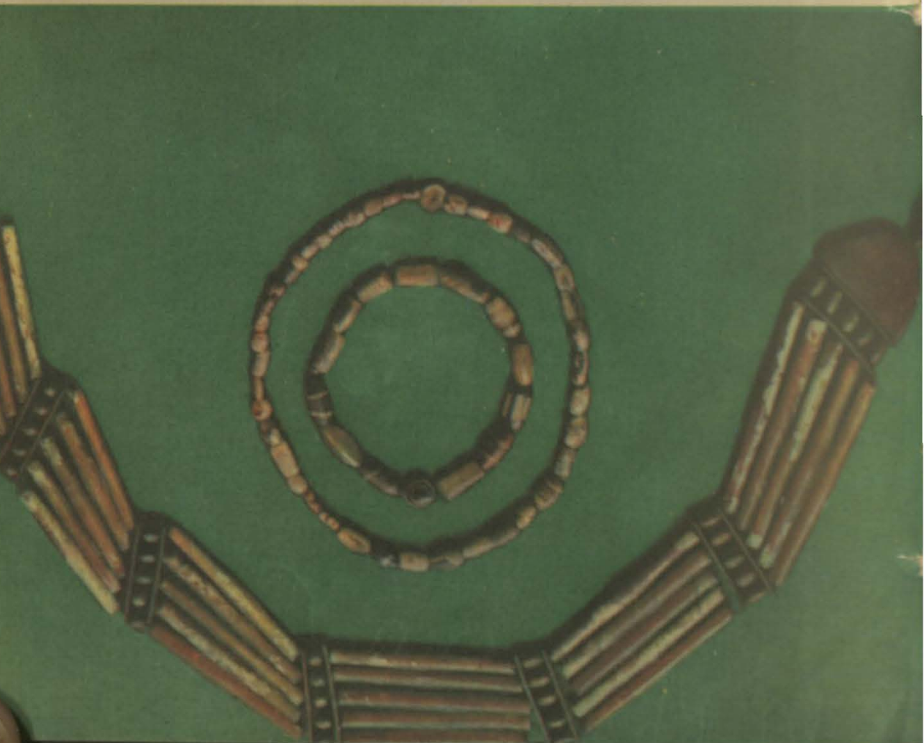
The 'unicorn' on a steatite seal, Mohenjodaro.





Painted pot, Amri.

Bead necklaces, Mohenjodaro.





A Buddha head in stucco, Taxila.



An ascetic, Central Museum, Lahore.

city and a large number of early Islamic coins, pottery, inscriptions and other objects which help to reconstruct the social, political and economic history of the region.

Since Independence, the Department has made big advances in the exploration and preservation of Pakistan's cultural heritage by undertaking scientific excavations in both zones of Pakistan, restoring the standing monuments of historical importance, and by reorganizing existing archaeological museums and establishing new ones—of which there are now 12 in West Pakistan and five in East Pakistan. All museums have been reorganized on scientific lines, and modern display techniques have also been adopted at Harappa, Mohenjodaro and Taxila. The following is a summary of the activities of the Department during the recent past up to the middle of 1970

Administrative Reorganization : To ensure greater efficiency, the West Pakistan Circle, with headquarters at Karachi and Lahore, has been divided, and a Sub-Regional Circle, with headquarters at Hyderabad, has been created. This new Circle is now responsible for the upkeep and maintenance

[1] For a brief review of the development of archaeology in the Subcontinent see *Pakistan Year-Book, 1969*.

of monuments and archaeological sites located in Sind, Baluchistan and a part of North-West Panjab. Similarly, the Exploration Branch of the Department has been bifurcated into two branches. Exploration and excavation in East Pakistan is the responsibility of a newly established branch in that region. However, control of the two branches haş for the time being been entrusted to the Superintendent of Archaeology at Lahore for the Western Branch and at Karachi for the Eastern Branch.

Museums : (i) The revised scheme for the establishment of a National Museum at Islamabad was approved at a total cost of Rs. 11.1 million by the National Economic Council on June 15, 1967, subject to the condition that the expenditure during the Third Five-Year Plan period would be restricted to Rs. 5 million. Out of the total allocation, a sum of Rs. 1.717 million has been spent to meet the cost of land and the architect's fees. However, pending finalization of the plans, construction work has not yet been started.

(ii) The scheme for the establishment of a National Museum at the Second Capital, near Dacca, has been approved at a cost of Rs. 5.6 million. Construction work will be started when the plans of the Museum building have been completed and approved. By 1970, a sum of Rs. 600,000 had been made available in two instalments for the purchase of land.

(iii) The expansion of the Archaeological Museum at Saidu Sharif, Swat, at a total cost of Rs. 1,88.000, was begun in the year 1967/68 and completed by the end of 1969.

(iv) In the Chittagong Hill Tracts, where the development of the area will soon begin to obscure the special ethnic characteristics of its aboriginal tribes, the Government has constructed an Ethnological Museum at Chittagong, at a total cost of Rs. 494,500 under the Second Plan. Expansion

Terracotta plaque depicting dancing girls and a piper, Dacca Museum.



and stocking of the Museum, for which a total allocation of Rs. 1,125,000 was provided under the Third Plan, has been completed, including the introduction of the latest techniques of display.

(v) Under the Second Plan, the Government provided a sum of Rs. 200,000 for repairs to the Lalbagh Fort, Dacca. The Fort provides a suitable place for the establishment of a historical museum of the Mughal period, where objects associated with the history of the Fort and of its contemporary Mughal period could be displayed, and the Third Plan allocation of Rs. 125,000 has been fully utilized to complete this project.

(vi) The existing gallery in the Archaeological Museum at the Salban Vihara in Mainamati, Comilla, is less than 100 feet in length and needs to be expanded for the display of the fresh antiquities unearthed every year through archaeological excavations. Moreover, in the interests of comparative studies, it has also been considered desirable to exhibit related objects from other ancient sites in East Pakistan. Keeping these considerations in view, the Government provided a sum of Rs. 75,000 for the construction of an additional gallery, and this has been completed in 1970.

(vii) The National Museum of Pakistan, Karachi, was until recently temporarily housed at Frere Hall, which provided very limited space. It has now been shifted to the new building of the Central Museum of Karachi, Burns Garden, where it will stay until its premises are ready to house it. It was formally inaugurated in February 1970 by the President of Pakistan.

Dioramas on display at the Museum depict: life in the Stone Age and prehistoric period; aboriginal tribes living in Kafiristan and the Chittagong Hill Tracts; a Buddhist stupa and Gandhara Sculpture; the Monastery of Takht-i-Bahai; and the Siege of Daibul by Muhammad bin Qasim.

Ethnological material of cultural significance has also been collected from various regions—including Swat, Chitral, Sind and Baluchistan—for display in the National Museum as well as in the Ethnological Museum at Chittagong.

(viii) The electrification of the Archaeological Museum of Umerkot, Tharparkar District, was completed in 1969.

(ix) A sum of Rs. 41,000 was earmarked during the Third Plan for the construction of an office-cum-godown wing at Mohenjodaro, and the construction of the Office Block was completed by the end of 1969.

Exploration : (i) With the completion of the Tarbela Dam, an area of 400 square miles which contains numerous archaeological sites will be submerged under deep water. The Department has therefore undertaken an exploration of the area and located a number of sites.

(ii) In addition, the following monuments have been discovered in recent explorations.

Mardan District : 1. Remains of a Fort relating to the Hindu Shahi period (eighth to ninth century A.D.)

2. Remains of early periods at Silu, Khund, Barwosa, Ghazi,



A Gandhara female torso, Central Museum, Lahore.



Sleeping musician, Taxila.

Garghashti, Abdur Rehman Dheri, Bahadur Khan Dheri and Kama Dheri

Rawalpindi District : 1. Sangni Fort, reported to belong to the Hindu period. It is well preserved.

2. Remains of Palaces of Rani Mango or Mangla of the Gakkhar tribe. A portion of the ruin is well preserved.

3. Pakka Qila, on the left bank of the Kansi River, 15 miles from Gujar Khan. It is in fact a Serai built by Sultan Sher Shah Suri.

4 Rumial Pind, a mound of the Buddhist period. Surface finds included a jar containing Kushan, Sassanian and Muslim coins.

(iii) The archaeological survey of an old city called Jun and an area close to it, in Taluka Tando Muhammad Khan, Hyderabad District, was undertaken. The remains of the city of Jun are spread over an area of about 30-35 acres and are located between Matli and Talhar, a mile off the Hyderabad-Badin Road. Here a four-centered arched gateway, characteristic of the early period of Mughal architecture, and a tomb built of stone slabs are worth mentioning. The cenotaph carved with floral and geometric designs is richly inscribed with the verses of the Holy Quran in beautiful *naskh*. The inscription recorded on the epitaph says that it is the tomb of Malik Sultan who died in 1644.

(iv) About 3 miles north-east of Saidpur village and close to the Buddhist stupa of Sudheran-jo-Dadho, Hyderabad District, a number of

tombs have been discovered in an old graveyard, which contains beautiful stone-carvings and figure-work resembling the graves at Chaukhandi near Karachi.

Excavations : Excavations of archaeological sites, which are a major function of the Department, have gone a long way in reconstructing many an unknown phase of Pakistan's past cultures. Excavation in East Pakistan is since 1969 the responsibility of an Exploration and Excavation Unit permanently situated at Mainamati in Comilla District.

(i) Excavations completed at the prehistoric site of Sarai Khola, near Taxila, in May 1968 have revealed the presence of a late Neolithic culture. In order to determine the cultural sequence of the site, excavations were resumed in November 1968 and concluded in January 1969. So far four different periods have been recorded. For anthropological studies of the skeletal remains unearthed at Sarai Khola, the Department secured the services of Dr. Wolfram Bernhard, a noted German anthropologist; and one skeletal remain has been sent to him in Germany. Excavations were again resumed in December 1969.

(ii) Seasonal excavations at Nimogram (Swat), a site replete with Buddhist stupas and rich in Gandhara sculptures, were resumed in May 1968 and closed in July 1968. A large number of Gandhara sculptures, mainly in schist, were recovered. Besides, three copper coins, a copper ring and an antimony rod have also been unearthed).

(iii) Excavations at Mankiyala in the District of Rawalpindi, which were confined to trial trenches, came to a close in July 1968. The finds include a large number of potsherds revealing an interesting variety of shapes, forms, decorations and textures, roughly dating to the Scytho-Parthian period (first century B.C. to second century A.D).

(iv) The French Archaeological Mission headed by Mons. J. M. Casal, in collaboration with the Department of Archaeology, resumed excavation at the ancient site of Pirak near Quetta in Baluchistan in December 1968 and concluded it in February 1969. At the end of the year, in December, excavation was again taken up.

(v) Seasonal excavations at Mansura, an early Muslim settlement in Sanghar District, were again resumed in February 1970. The finds so far unearthed include five copper and two silver coins, a few bangle fragments and some pottery. The material is under study.

(vi) Following up on the discovery of some Buddhist finds consisting of terracotta figurines, pottery, coins and other artefacts from a low mound situated about a mile to the West of Sialkot city on the way to Pucca Garh, the Department started excavations there in October 1969. The terracotta sculptures discovered are the first of their kind to be found in the area, and it is anticipated that excavations under way will throw new light on the early history of Sialkot.

(vii) Seasonal excavations resumed at the ancient Buddhist site of Mahasthangarh, 8 miles north of the Bogra Railway Station, have unearthed terracotta toys and figurines, stone pestles, glass bangles, an earthen oil lamp,



Kalyana Sundara in stone, Bogra.



Khadiravani Tara, Rajsha

a miniature earthen pot, and some coins. Mahasthangarh has been identified as the Maurya provincial capital of Pundravardhana in the third century B.C. Excavations have also shown that the city was occupied by the Guptas in the fourth to seventh century A.D.,, and the Palas in the eighth century. It is here too that there is the *Dargah* of the famous Muslim warrior-saint, Shah Sultan Mahisawar, situated on the highest mound of the site.

(viii) The Deputy Commissioner of Dinajpur, East Pakistan, reported in 1968 that three ancient mounds at Sitakot village were being damaged by people of the locality. The mounds belong to the Buddhist period. In order to determine the archaeological potentiality of the sites, the Department undertook immediate excavations, which revealed that one of the mounds at Sitakot conceals the remains of a square monastery.

Conservation : Annual and special repairs on monuments in East and West Pakistan continued according to plan, and in particular included the following :

East Pakistan :

1. Tomb of Ghias-ud-Din Mohammad Azam Shah at Mogra Para.
2. Lalbagh Fort, Dacca.
3. Ancient monuments at various sites.

West Pakistan :

1. Noor Jehan's Tomb, Lahore.
2. Lahore Fort.
3. Jehangir's Mausoleum, Lahore.
4. Jani Beg's Tomb, Thatta.
5. Qutub-ud-Din Aibak's Tomb, Lahore.
6. Shalamar Gardens, Lahore.
7. Roshni Gate, Lahore.
8. Early remains at Banbhore, including ancient mosque.

Protection : The following monuments being of national importance have been declared protected under the Antiquities Act, 1968, in the last two years.

1. Bhiro Bham mound in Taluka Nawabshah containing material comparable to that recovered at the intermediate Muslim period level at Banbhore.
2. Tomb of Mohammad ibn Harun in Bela Town, one of the Muslim generals who came to assist Mohammad bin Qasim at the time of Hijaj bin Yousuf.
3. Gurdwara Chakki Sahib, Aminabad, Gujranwala District.
4. Samadh of Sardar Mohan Singh, Gujranwala.
5. Gurdwara Rohri Sahib, Aminabad, Gujranwala.
6. Gurdwara Chhevin Badshahi, Hafizabad, Gujranwala.
7. Behram Akhara, Gujranwala.
8. Shri Atma Nand Bhawan, Gujranwala.
9. Jain Guru Shri Vijianand, G. T. Road, Gujranwala.
10. Jain Mandir, Gujranwala.
11. Jain Sewtember Temple, Gujranwala.
12. Mandir Kates Raj, Tatral Pind Dadan Khan, Jhelum.
13. Gurdwara Panja Sahib, Hasanabdal, Attock District.
14. Gurdwara Kot Bhai Than Singh, Kot Fateh Khan, Campbellpur District.
15. Goth Raj Malik, Mirpur Sakro.
16. Tomb of Ghias-ud-Din Mohammad Azam Shah, Mogra Para.
17. Takhta Lar (Band), Mardan District.
18. Bakhshi Hamid's Mosque, Chittagong District.

Exhibitions and Conferences : (i) The nineteenth Annual General Conference of Museums was opened on May 16, 1969, at Frere Hall in Karachi. At this, particular stress was laid on the Museum's educational role, which gained in effectiveness through the visual impact of its exhibits, as well as its function of being a repository of the cultural heritage of the people.

(ii) At the end of the same year, in the last week of December, the first Pakistan Museums Week was organized by the Pakistan National Committee of the International Council of Museums (ICOM) and inaugurated by the President of Pakistan at Dacca. All museums in Pakistan participated in this week with special lectures, symposia, film shows and exhibitions.

(iii) In order to introduce Pakistan to Australia, where it is com-



Nativity of the Buddha. Dinajpur.

paratively little known, it was decided to hold an exhibition of archaeological treasures from Pakistan at a few prominent Australian cities in March-October 1969. Inaugurated at Canberra, it closed at Melbourne after touring various major cities. It was widely appreciated and given prominent coverage by press, radio and television.

(iv) At the instance of the Export Promotion Bureau, a representative collection consisting of 33 antiquities was sent to Japan for display at the Pakistan Pavillion of the World Exposition, 1970.

(v) A special exhibition of rare manuscripts of the Holy Quran was organized at the National Museum, Karachi, on the occasion of the Museum Week in 1969.

(vi) *UNESCO Mission* : The world-famous ancient remains at Mohenjodaro are fast deteriorating owing to the effects of water-logging and the chemical reactions of salinity in the region. The Government of Pakistan has approaehed UNESCO to advise and help devise means to save these grand relics. UNESCO readily responded to Pakistan's request and experts deputed by it visited the sites. In 1968, UNESCO experts came to Pakistan under the leadership of Sir Mortimer Wheeler, and carried out a study of the site from October 7 to 17. In January 1970, a representative of the UNESCO Secretariat, Mr. S.M. Waliullah, participated in consultations held between the Education Minister and experts from WAPDA and other concerned agencies to consider possible measures to deal with the problem. Currently further tests are being carried out to formulate concrete proposals.

(vii) *Acquisition* : The collection of the National Museum of Pakistan is being enriched through the addition of ethnological material relating to the tribes in Sind, Baluchistan, Panjab, Chitral, Swat and other frontier regions in West Pakistan and the Chittagong Hill Tracts in East Pakistan. Furthermore, the Advisory Council for the purchase of works of art and antiquities, established by the Government, has recommended the purchase of a series of rare manuscript specimens of Arabic, Persian and Urdu calligraphy and of various artefacts and works of art.

Publications : (i) The Department publishes an annual journal, *Pakistan Archaeology*, which includes elaborate accounts of archaeological researches and excavations carried out by the Department, and issues other occasional publications—including, in 1968, a fine book on *Architecture and Art Treasures in Pakistan* by Dr. F.A. Khan, which covers the prehistoric, protohistoric and Hindu-Buddhist periods in Pakistan. It provides a comprehensive and clear picture of the pre-Muslim cultural heritage of Pakistan as revealed by archaeological studies completed by 1968.

The Press

THE SPREAD of education coupled with industrialization has revolutionized the character of the press in Pakistan.

As many as 1167 journals and periodicals are now being published in the following languages : English; the two national languages, Urdu and Bengali; and also in such regional language as Baluchi, Pashto, Punjabi, Sindhi and Gujrati.

A feature of this development is the growth in influence of the English language newspapers. Today there are 11 English language daily newspapers in the country. English newspapers circulate in both East and West Pakistan.

Historical reasons support the existence of English newspapers in Pakistan. During British rule, English was not only the official language and the medium of instruction, but also a widely adopted means of communication among the educated section of the population. Today English remains as an official language and an important medium of instruction in higher education: furthermore, it is a useful link between the two zones of the country and an essential means of world contact for Pakistan.

The development of the English language press, however, has not been at the expense of the national language papers. In fact, the most spectacular feature of the press in Pakistan has been the fast expansion of the Urdu and Bengali press.

Even though handicapped by the fact that Urdu newspapers are written laboriously by hand, not set by machines, the rise in their circulation has been rapid. The *Jang* (Karachi and Rawalpindi) has a circulation of over 186,176.

At first the Muslim share in undivided India's press was small. But journals like *The Comrade* (Calcutta), *Al-Hilal* (Calcutta), *Al-Jamiat* (Delhi)

and *The Zamindar* (Lahore) blazed a new trail in British-Indian Journalism and politics.

When the Muslims of the Subcontinent organized themselves around the political platform of the All-India Muslim League, led by Quaid-i-Azam Mohammad Ali Jinnah in the thirties, an increased and urgent attention was given to the development of a strong Muslim press to support the Muslim cause. This led to the establishment of a number of Muslim-owned papers. They were: *Azad*, a Bengali daily (Calcutta, 1936); *The Star of India*, an English language evening newspaper (Calcutta, 1937); *Morning News* an English language daily (Calcutta, 1942); *Dawn*, an English language weekly (Delhi, 1942), later turned into a daily (1943); *The Pakistan Times*, an English language daily (Lah -e, 1946); and *Nawa-i-Waqt*, an Urdu daily (Lahore). Although financially handicapped, these papers were wedded to the cause of Pakistan, and their readership expanded.

On the eve of independence, however, leaving aside *The Pakistan Times* and *Nawa-i-Waqt*, there was no major Muslim-owned newspaper or periodical in the areas constituting the new State of Pakistan. The Hindu press (*The Tribune* of Lahore) migrated to India; and there was also a migration, though on a small scale, of Muslim journals from India to Pakistan. Among them were the English daily, *Dawn*, which started publication from Karachi on the day Pakistan emerged as an independent State, and the Urdu dailies *Jang* and *Anjam*, which transferred their offices from Delhi to Karachi.

In East Pakistan, the English language daily, *Morning News;* re-emerged from Dacca first as a weekly (April 1948) and then as a daily (December 1949). *The Azad* was also shifted from Calcutta to Dacca. A new English language daily, *The Pakistan Observer*, was started from Dacca.

The newspapers started in the early years of Pakistan shared in the heart-break and the difficulties the new State itself was encountering. Good printing presses did not exist. Few newspapers had their own plant. Acute shortage of such essential materials and equipment as ink, newsprint, block-making plants and linotype machines and spare parts dogged every stage of newspaper production. A new Government, still in its swaddling clothes and called upon to give assistance to other sectors of the economy, could not release adequate resources to equip the press. It is a tribute to the dedication and ingenuity of the pioneers of the Pakistan press that these obstacles, instead of overwhelming them, spurred them on to greater effort.

However, there were casualties by the wayside. The English language *Sind Observer* closed down in 1952, as did the *Civil and Military Gazette*, Karachi edition, in 1953, and the Lahore edition in 1963. The English language daily. *The Times of Karachi*, incorporating the evening paper, *Evening Times*, folded after eight years of struggling. So did the *Pakistan Standard*, the official English language daily of the Pakistan Muslim League party, within a year of its birth. The Urdu language *Anjam* was incorporated with *Mashriq* in 1966.

Despite these setbacks, progress has been steady. Circulations have jumped as have advertisement revenues. Many newspapers are now equipped with their own high-speed, multicolour rotary presses. The papers are better

produced, show greater professional competence, and have greater range and depth in the coverage of national and international affairs.

Principal Dailies : The Press Information Department of the Ministry of Information and National Affairs lists 200 dailies, most of them in Urdu, followed by English, Bengali, Sindhi, Gujrati and Pushto. The leading metropolitan dailies are :

Urdu : *Hurriyat, Imroze, Jang, Jasarat, Kohistan, Mashriq, Musawat, Nawa-i-Waqt, Azad* (first issued in 1970 from Lahore).

English: *Dawn, Morning News, The Pakistan Times, The Pakistan Observer, The Sun* (first issued from Karachi in 1970).

Bengali: *Azad, Dainik Pakistan, Ittefaq, Purbodesh, Sangram.*

Among the regional English language papers, the better known are : *Eastern Examiner*, Chittagong; *The Indus Times*, Hyderabad; *Khyber Mail*, Peshawar.

There are two financial daily papers in English: *The Business Recorder* and *Business Post*, both published simultaneously from Lyallpur and Lahore.

Periodicals : The periodical press of Pakistan consists of weeklies (315) bi-weeklies (15), fortnightlies (116) and monthlies (521).

The monthlies are mostly literary and cultural, while weeklies usually carry a strong political bias. Specialized periodicals concern trade and industry, films, women, children, economics, engineering, science, medicine and other subjects of a specialized character.

In addition, there are several house journals published by some of the leading corporations and companies.

Ownership : Most of the newspapers and periodicals in Pakistan are privately owned by individuals or joint-stock companies. Hence most of them pursue independent editorial policies.

However, a few of them appear to have close affiliations with one or another political party, as is amply reflected in both their news and views columns. For example, *Kohistan*, Lahore, now owned by Ittehad Publications, is pro-Jama'at-i-Islami; *Musawat*, Lahore, pro-Pakistan People's Party; *Sangram*, Dacca, pro-Jama'at-i-Islami.

The National Press Trust founded in 1964, is a non-profit organization, formed by private individuals and businessmen to run newspapers on independent lines. Patterned on the Trust that operated *The Times*, London, before its recent sale, the National Press Trust owns 12 newspapers in English, Urdu and Bengali in six important cities of East and West Pakistan. These are : *Morning News*, Karachi and Dacca; *The Pakistan Times*, Rawalpindi and Lahore; *Imroze*, Lahore and Multan; *Mashriq* , Lahore, Peshawar and Karachi; The *Dainik Pakistan*, Dacca; *Akhbar-e-Khawateen*, weekly, Karachi; and *Sport Times*, weekly, Lahore.

Other important groups owing more than one publication are the following :

(i) Pakistan Herald Publications Ltd. : *Dawn*, English daily;

Dawn, Gujrati; *Vatan*, Gujrati eveninger; *Evening Star*, English eveninger; *The Herald*, English monthly; *Eastern Film*, English monthly, *Hurriyat*, an Urdu daily. All these are published from Karachi.

(ii) Nawa-i-Waqt Ltd. : *Nawa-e-Waqt*, Urdu daily, from Lahore and Rawalpindi; *Qandeel*, Urdu weekly, from Lahore.

(iii) Millat Group : *Millat*, Gujrati daily, and *Leader*, English eveninger, both from Karachi.

(iv) Jang Group : *Jang*, Urdu daily, Karachi and Rawalpindi; *Daily News*, English eveninger, Karachi ; *Akhbar-i-Jehan*, Urdu weekly, Karachi.

(v) Pakistan Observer Group: *The Pakistan Observer*, English daily; *Chitrali*, Bengali and Urdu film weekly; *Purbodesh*, Bengali daily; *Watan*, Urdu daily. All four are published from Dacca.

Character of the Press : The Press in Pakistan inherited a strong political character. It fought a long battle for Pakistan's creation against better equipped organs owned by the British and the Hindus. Among its own people, it had to strive to sustain a high degree of political consciousness. Inevitably, therefore, the Pakistan press had, even before the independence of Pakistan, become strongly political. Lately, however, there has been a definite trend towards greater coverage of other aspects of the nation's corporate life. This is inevitable in a society going through a massive transformation in its economic and socio-political life.

The English language press, despite limited readership, continues to be influential. The morning dailies are sober in their treatment of news, and give a fairly extensive coverage to home and foreign affairs. In fact, English language papers in Pakistan carry a greater proportion of foreign news than do many American or British newspapers.

Many of these newspapers have arrangements for utilizing syndicated columns and features of foreign newspapers, which provide comments from front-rank British and American journalists on events around the world.

In Urdu and Bengali papers, the accent is on home affairs, and less space is given to sports and financial news.

The evening dailies, English as well as Urdu, constitute, in a limited way, the tabloid press.

Weekly journalism, which so far had made little headway, has taken strides recently as a result of the Government's liberal press policy and the restoration of political activity, which in December 1970 culminated in nation-wide elections on the basis of adult franchise.

Partly in response to the enhanced scope offered by the election year and partly on account of the liberalization of Government policy on the issue of new journals, a large number of new weeklies have recently appeared, some of them of a high standard with large circulations. These include *Zindagi*, an Urdu weekly from Lahore, with marked leanings towards the Jama'at-i-Islami; *Forum*, Dacca, and *Inter-Wing*, Rawalpindi, both English weeklies supporting the Awami League (a political party abolished and banned under

Martial Law in March 1971 (see chapter on Constitution and Legal System). *Combat*, Karachi, *Holiday*, Dacca, *Lail-o-Nahaar*, Karachi, *Al-Fatah*, Karachi, and *Nusrat*, Lahore, with socialist leanings and favouring either the Pakistan People's Party (PPP) or the National Awami Party (NAP).

In English monthly journalism, three glossy women's magazines edited by women are *Mirror*, *Women's World* and *Charm*. *She*, printed on newsprint, is a popular weekly.

News Agencies : The Pakistan Press is fed mainly by three national news agencies : (1) The Associated Press of Pakistan (APP); (2) The Pakistan Press International (PPI), and (3) The United Press of Pakistan (UPP).

APP : The Associated Press of Pakistan supplies national and foreign news to 52 newspapers, Radio Pakistan, television stations at Lahore, Dacca, Karachi and Rawalpindi; 24 commercial subscribers; and to various offices of the Central and Provincial Governments. It maintains its central editorial desk at Karachi; bureaux at Rawalpindi, Lahore, Dacca, Chittagong, Peshawar, Lyallpur, Multan, Bahawalpur, Sukkur and Hyderabad, and stringers in other important towns of the country.

For foreign coverage, APP has entered into agreements for exchange of news, features and photographs with the following 12 foreign news agencies: Reuter (London); United Press International (New York); New China News Agency (Peking); Tass (Moscow); APN (Moscow); Antara (Djakarta); Pars (Tehran); Anatolia (Ankara); Kyodo (Tokyo); Mena (Cairo): Ager Press (Bucharest) and News Agency of Burma (Rangoon).

APP's foreign news service is supplemented by dispatches from its own full-time correspondents based in London and Kathmandu.

On an average, APP claims to put out between 40,000 and 50,000 words a day over its teleprinter network linking its bureaux and subscribers. The news agency employs about 70 journalists for reporting and editing and about 100 teleprinter operators and mechanics for the reception and distribution of news. The average daily wordage from Pakistan to foreign news agencies allied to APP has increased from about 1,000 in 1963 to over 5,000.

In 1963, APP had only two representatives of foreign news agencies (Reuter and APA) working from its news files in Pakistan. This number has now increased to 12, eight of them foreigners and four Pakistanis representing foreign news agencies. The increase in the number of foreign correspondents has come largely as a result of APP's news exchange agreements with Tass, New China News Agency and Antara. APP cables news of special interest directly to Pars (Iran), Anatolia (Turkey), Ager Press (Rumania) and Kyodo (Japan).

PPI: Pakistan Press International, formerly known as Pakistan Press Association (PPA), was established 15 years ago (1956), as a private joint-stock company.

The agency claims to circulate, on an average, about 300,000 words of home and foreign news daily on three separate circuits—one for national and the other two for foreign news. All important newspapers, all radio

and television stations, and many commercial houses subscribe to PPI for its services. The agency has bureaux in all important towns of the country and a network of correspondents and stringers in other places.

PPI's home service consists of political, economic, educational, commercial, social, cultural and sports news.

For foreign coverage, PPI is linked with the following 15 news agencies: AFP (France); APA (United States of America); DPA (West Germany); ANSA (Italy); CETEKA (Czechoslovakia); Tanjug (Yugoslavia) ; CAF (Poland); PAP (Poland); Jiji Press (Japan); MTI (Hungary); BTA (Bulgaria); BERNAMA (Malaysia); Iraqi News Agency (Iraq); APN (USSR); and PANA (Japan).

PPI supplies newspapers with feature articles covering a wide range of subjects, and its photo service feeds newspapers and television networks in the country. The agency issues a weekly Foreign Bulletin for the benefit of the foreign news agencies which are associated with it, and also for Pakistan Missions abroad. Besides this, the Bulletin is sold to Pakistani nationals abroad and some newspapers in foreign countries. It also has a publication section which brings out a monthly magazine, *Economic Outlook*, and other periodicals.

UPP : Founded in 1949, the United Press of Pakistan News Service supplies news to 32 daily newspapers and to Radio Pakistan. Its coverage is mostly limited to Pakistan news. With its head office in Karachi, it has branch offices at Dacca, Lahore, Rawalpindi, Hyderabad and Chittagong.

Foreign Services : Some newspapers subscribe to foreign feature services, such as that of the *Observer*, London, *The New York Herald Tribune*, and *UPI* features.

Major foreign news agencies, such as *Reuter*, *APA*, *UPI*, *AFP*, *TASS* and *NCNA*, have correspondents in Pakistan. A few foreign papers—*The New York Times*, *The Times* (London), *Globe* and *Mail* (Toronto), *Time*, *Newsweek*, and *Life* —have stringers in Pakistan.

Press Organizations : There are three main press organizations in the country: (i) the newspaper owners' body, All-Pakistan Newspaper Society (APNS) ; the editors' body, Council of Pakistan Newspaper Editors (CPNE); the Pakistan Federal Union of Journalists (PFUJ).

There are local unions of journalists in Karachi, Lahore, Dacca, Rawalpindi, Hyderabad, Quetta, Chittagong, Multan, Peshawar, etc. Press clubs have been established in all big cities.

Working Conditions : The working conditions of journalists remained unsatisfactory for a long time. Salaries were meagre and other facilities negligible. There was also no security of service. On the recommendations of the Pakistan Press Commission (1960), appointed by the Government to look into the state of the newspaper industry and the working conditions of

journalists, the Pakistan Government promulgated the Working Journalists (Conditions of Service) Ordinance on April 27, 1960.

The law provided for a series of benefits to journalists: compulsory provident funds were instituted; the working week was fixed at 42 hours; employers were required to give two months' notice (or two months' pay in lieu thereof) if they wanted to terminate the services of a journalist of three or more years' standing. Other benefits included privilege leave on full pay for one month in a year, medical leave on half pay, and casual leave.

To facilitate the settlement of disputes between journalists and the management, the Ordinance provides for adjudication by industrial courts. Any establishment employing 20 or more journalists comes within the jurisdiction of the industrial courts.

In accordance with the provisions of the Ordinance, a Wage Board was set up in 1960, which fixed scales of pay for different categories of newspaper workers. It recommended: (i) abolition of the distinction between English and other language papers in the matter of wages of working journalists; (ii) fringe benefits for journalists, such as dearness allowance, conveyance allowance, charge allowance, night-shift or transport allowance, entertainment allowance and outfit allowance, depending upon the duties performed; (iii) payment to apprentices; (iv) payment of gratuity in the event of dismissal after three years of continuous service, or of retirement after 25 years of service or of death, and (v) entitlement to medical expenses. An amendment to the Ordinance makes the dependents of journalists also eligible for free medical treatment. All newspaper establishments are bound by the Wage Board Award.

The Board further suggested that a Second Wage Board should be set up after five years to review the position. Accordingly, the Second Wage Board was constituted on April 26, 1969, by the two Provincial Governments (the subject having since been transferred from the Centre to the Provinces), with Mr. Justice Sajjad Ahmad Jan of the Supreme Court as Chairman and four representatives each of the APNS and PFUJ.

The APNS was represented by Mr. Qazi Mohammad Akbar of the daily *Ibrat*, Hyderabad, who was also the President of APNS; Mir Habibur Rahman, Managing Director of the *Jang* group; Mr. Anwarul Islam of the *Pakistan Observer*, Dacca, and Honorary General Secretary of APNS; and Mr. Tofazzul Hussain of the daily *Ittefaq*, Dacca.

The PFUJ was represented by Mr. K.G. Mustafa, Chief Subeditor, *Pakistan Observer*, Dacca; Mr. Abdul Toab Khan of *Dainik Pakistan*; Mr. A. T. Choudhri, Assistant Editor, *The Pakistan Times*, Lahore ; and Mr. Salahuddin Aslam, photographer of the daily *Hurriyat* and General Secretary of the Karachi Union of Journalists.

The terms of reference of the Board as laid down in the notification were :

1. Review of the implementation of the Award of the First Wage Board.
2. The need for and quantum of the interim relief to be given to working journalists pending the award of the Second Wage Board.

3. Fixation of the wages of the working journalists, having regard to the rise in the cost of living, the prevalent rates of wages for comparable employments, and the circumstances relating to the newspaper industry in different regions of the country and to any other circumstances which the body may deem relevant. The Board may fix rates of wages for time work and for piece work.
4. Devising ways and means for setting up the machinery for implementation of the Award.

The Second Wage Board held its first meeting at Lahore, its headquarters, on June 7, 1969. Further meetings were held on June 8 and 10 and July 2, 3 and 15, 1969.

But before the deliberations could proceed further, the Chairman resigned. On the appointment of Mr. Justice A.S. Faruqi, of the West Pakistan High Court, as Chairman on October 17, 1969, the Board's meetings under his chairmanship were held in Lahore, Dacca and Karachi; and efforts were made to find a compromise formula for interim relief acceptable to both the journalists and the newspaper managements. These negotiations, however, failed, and Mr. Justice A. S. Faruqi had to give his award on interim relief. The award was officially announced on January 7, 1970, by the two Provincial Governments. This award, as a matter of fact, reflected a compromise between the claims of journalists and the limitations of the newspaper proprietors. The rate of relief prescribed under the award is high in the case of lower income groups and undergoes progressive decrease in proportion to the rising scale of the salaries.

Training : To meet the increasing demand for trained journalists by newspapers, radio and television, regular courses in journalism are offered by some universities. The Panjab and Karachi Universities in West Pakistan and Dacca University in East Pakistan conduct M.A. (Journalism) courses.

The Pakistan Press Foundation, a private organization, has sponsored the Pakistan Press Institute in Karachi, which runs courses in photography.

The Thomson Foundation in concert with the National Press Trust has also conducted a course for subeditors in February 1970.

The Government, on its part, has set up a training institute at Islamabad to train Central Information Service (CIS) probationers.

Freedom of the Press : The Pakistan Press plays a crucial role in the task of national development. Freedom of expression was one of the fundamental rights guaranteed by the 1962 Constitution of Pakistan. Although this has for the time being been abrogated under Martial Law, a wide variety of opinions find free expression in the press. However, in March 1971, in view of the national emergency and the banning of the Awami League, a more strict Censorship was introduced. (See chapter on Constitution and Legal System.)

In an unprecedented event in this part of Asia, the Pakistan Press, in co-operation with the Government, adopted a voluntary code of ethics and set up its own machinery to ensure compliance. The arrangement was hailed all over the world by both newspapers and press organizations.

Court of Honour : Under the Code of Ethics, the Press Court of Honour was set up on October 27, 1963. It was organized on the general lines of the Press Council in Britain to enforce the provisions of the Code and to correct its violations. The Court, consisting of a retired Judge of the Supreme Court and six editors, started functioning from March 28, 1967.

With the setting up of the Court, pending cases for adjudication before courts of law were withdrawn and fresh cases involving violation of the Press Code were referred to the Court of Honour.

The following are elected members of the Press Court: Mr. Justice Amin Ahmed, Chairman ; Mr. S. G. M. Budruddin, Secretary, (Editor, *Morning News*, Dacca-Karachi); Mr. Moinul Hosein (Editor, *Ittefaq*, Dacca); Mr. Shahadat Hussain, (Editor, the *Azad*, Dacca); Mr. Majeed Nizami (Editor, *Nida-i-Millat*, Lahore); Mr. M.A. Zuberi (Editor, *Business Recorder*, Karachi); and Shaikh Ali Mohammad (Editor, *Hilal-i-Pakistan*, Hyderabad).

Code of Ethics : The Code of Ethics adopted by the CPNE reads as follows:

The signatories to this Code of Press Ethics, believing that it is necessary to observe a voluntary code of conduct by the *Press* to ensure its functioning in freedom in the most beneficial manner to society, decide to act in accordance with the Code set forth below:

(1) The profession of journalism, which is a public institution, should not be used as an instrument to serve personal or anti-social ends, or interests which are not compatible with this profession, nor should it be used to the detriment of the public interest.

(2) The following are to be avoided in any form of publication, such as articles, news items, photographs and advertisements, etc:

- (a) Immorality or obscenity.
- (b) The use in articles of vulgar expressions against individuals, institutions or groups.
- (c) Belittling exposure of the private lives of individuals, unless such exposure is in the public interest.
- (d) Libellous or false allegations against individuals, institutions, groups, or by one newspaper against the other.

(3) Presentation of news items and comments on events should be fair and objective and there should be no wilful departure from facts.

(4) Headlines should not materially distort the content of the news.

(5) Off-the-record statements should not be published.

(6) The journalist should protect the secrecy of his source and respect the confidence placed in him.

(7) Embargoes on release dates of news, articles and pictures should be observed.

(8) Paid commercial announcements or advertisements in the form of news, articles, pictures, and features should be published in such a way as to leave no doubt that they actually are commercial announcements or advertisements.

(9) Justified corrections or denials sent as a result of any incorrect information published by newspapers, periodicals, or news agencies should

be published within the shortest possible period of time in such a way as thoroughly to eliminate the impression created by the original publication which necessitated the issuance of a correction or denial.

(10) The Press shall avoid the publication of news or comments, photographs or advertisements which tend to undermine the security of the State or solidarity of the nation.

(11) The Press shall refrain from publishing anything likely to undermine the loyalty and allegiance of any member of the armed forces of Pakistan.

(12) The Press shall not publish anything apt to create ill-will between different sections of the people, provided it is not construed to preclude legitimate airing of grievances and views in matters of disparity between regions and groups.

(13) The Press shall refrain from publishing anything likely to bring into hatred or contempt the head of any foreign State and shall further refrain from publishing anything likely to prejudice the maintenance of friendly relations between the Government of Pakistan and the Government of any foreign State, provided it does not infringe on the right of newspapers to publish unslanted news and views.

(14) (a) In reporting the proceedings of the National and Provincial Assembly, such portions of the proceedings as the Speaker may have ordered to be expunged from the records of the Assembly shall not be published, and every effort shall be made to give the readers a fair report of what has been said by all sections of the House.

(b) In reporting proceedings of the court of law or tribunals, specially the proceedings of trials which have a political significance, care should be taken not to suppress versions or material evidence or arguments presented in the courts of law by either the prosecution or the defence.

(15) (a) In dealing with any labour situation, the Press shall restrict itself to factual reporting of events without in any way encouraging or provoking strikes or any other form of disturbance in industrial and other production units, in public utilities and essential services, provided any *bona fide* comments on industrial relations and working conditions will not come under the mischief of this clause.

(b) In dealing with the student problem, the Press shall not publish anything which may encourage agitational activities among the students, provided it does not infringe on the right of newspapers to publish unslanted news and views on any class of citizens, including students.

(16) No newspaper shall accept in any form or shape any financial aid or pecuniary advantage or obligations from or on behalf of any foreign country or concern. This does not apply to paid advertisements appearing as such.

(17) The Press shall uphold this Code of Ethics and shall not permit anything to be published against the Code in any of the newspapers signatories to the Code.

Court of Honour: The following arrangements for the implementation of the Press Code of Ethics should be adopted :

(1) A Press Court of Honour shall be set up by the Standing Committee of the Council of Pakistan Newspaper Editors, comprising a retired High Court judge as Chairman, and six members from among themselves, one of whom shall act as Secretary to the Court. Provided that half the members would retire each year, the first retirement will be by drawing lots. The retiring members will not be eligible for re-election before the expiry of 12 calendar months from the date of retirement. A member of the Court will not participate in cases in which his own paper is involved. A representative of the Ministry of Information and National Affairs shall have the right to attend the meeting of the Court as an observer.

(2) The Secretary shall—

(a) Receive complaints in writing from any part that may be aggrieved by an alleged breach of the Code by any newspaper which is a signatory to the Code.

(b) Submit the complaint to the Court and at the instance of the Court ask for a report on the complaint from the editor of the newspaper complained against.

(c) On receipt of such a report—or if no report is received within 30 days—shall convene, under instructions of the Chairman of the Court, a meeting of it at which the representatives of the aggrieved party and the editor concerned shall be invited to be present.

(d) The findings of the Court of Honour on any such complaint shall be issued in the form of a communique which will be obligatory on all signatory newspapers and periodicals to publish. Failure by any signatory to publish such a communique will be deemed a violation of the Code and be dealt with accordingly.

(3) The Court may warn or condemn the newspaper which is deemed to have contravened the Code, or it may seek to reconcile the parties.

(4) In cases where a serious offence is found to have been committed, the Court can ask the competent organization to consider the expulsion of the newspaper from the Press Organization to which the newspaper belongs or withdraw its protection from the party concerned.

(5) The Chairman of the Court shall have the power to initiate proceedings *suo moto* in connection with any breach of the Code by any signatory.

(6) The aggrieved party—whether it be Government or a private individual—will refrain from taking any other action when it has forwarded a complaint to the Press Court of Honour, whose findings shall be accepted.

(7) These provisions shall be applicable to all newspapers, periodicals and news agencies which become signatories to the Code.

(8) Newspapers or periodicals which are not members of the Council of Pakistan Newspaper Editors shall also be entitled to become signatories to the Code.

Radio and Television

As THE CLOCK chimed the hour of midnight on August 14, 1947, the three feeble medium-wave stations of Radio Pakistan at Lahore (5 kw), Dacca (5 kw) and Peshawar (10 kw) had the privilege of announcing the birth of a new country. And from this very day of its birth, Radio Pakistan has been an institution of the people dedicated to their service as a nation-wide media of information, education, and entertainment.

The Pakistan Government paid immediate attention to the development of sound broadcasting; and the Karachi station began to broadcast on the first Independence anniversary, in 1948. It was a modest beginning. In 1949, a 10 kw medium-wave transmitter was installed at Karachi and a 7.5 kw short-wave transmitter at Dacca. The same year two 50 kw short-wave stations went on the air from Karachi. Since then Radio Pakistan has come a long way on the road of better service to its listeners at home and abroad.

It now has 13 regional broadcasting stations, including Karachi, Hyderabad, Multan, Lahore, Rawalpindi, Quetta and Peshawar in West Pakistan, and Dacca, Chittagong, Rajshahi, Sylhet, Rangpur and Khulna in East Pakistan.

The Third Five-Year Plan provided Rs. 90 million for the development of broadcasting, with the objective of furnishing medium-range coverage for most of the country, a service linking East and West Pakistan, and an effective service for listeners abroad.

Implementation of the Third Plan programme was designed to increase the number of broadcasting stations to 14, transmitters to 36 and total power to 3,680 kw, as against the 1965 facilities of 11 broadcasting stations and 26 transmitters with a total power of 765 kw.

Specific targets in the Third Plan included :

— A full-fledged 100 kw medium-wave station at Multan.
— Relaying stations of 10 kw each at Khairpur and Khulna.
— One 1,000 kw medium-wave station each at Dacca and Islamabad.
— Two 250 kw and two 100 kw short-wave transmitters to be added to the existing set up at Islamabad.
— Completion of the broadcasting house at Islamabad and building a new broadcasting house at Peshawar.
— Replacement and improvement of equipment at most stations.
— Expansion of training facilities.
— Construction of separate studios for transcription services at Karachi, Lahore and Dacca.

A number of projects had been completed by the end of the Plan period, including the establishment of three new broadcasting stations, and work has been progressing apace on the implementation of the remaining projects.

News : Within the country, Radio Pakistan broadcasts news in seven languages. Six news bulletins are broadcast daily in the two national languages, Urdu and Bengali, and three in English. In addition, local news bulletins are broadcast in local and national languages by every station. The regional language bulletins comprise : Kashmiri 5, Sindhi 2, Pashto 4, and Baluchi 2. Radio Pakistan's news gathering is done by its own correspondents as well as through national and international news agencies. Including newscasts transmitted abroad, Radio Pakistan has increased the number of its news bulletins to over 84 per day in 24 languages.

Programmes : The major stations of Radio Pakistan broadcast programmes of a total duration of 14 to 15 hours every day, while other stations broadcast programmes for about 10 hours a day. In 1969, the total broadcasting time of Radio Pakistan amounted to 52,200 hours on short-wave and to 53,910 hours on medium-wave transmissions.

These programmes include news, music, skits, features and plays; informative and educative items, such as talks, discussions, news-reels and outside broadcast relays. Educational programmes, news-reels and non-musical entertainment form 50 per cent of the broadcasts. Religious programmes include recitation from the Holy Quran, with Urdu/Bengali translations, talks and special features on religious occasions and other important days and anniversaries.

A second channel is available at Karachi, Lahore and Dacca to provide a wider choice of programmes to listeners. Programmes are also broadcast for special categories of listeners, such as children, students, women, farmers and the Armed Forces. School broadcasts and the University Magazine are educative and instructional. Children's programmes consists of stories, skits, palylets, songs, talks and features of an informative and instructive character. Themes of feminine interest, such as cooking, knitting, child-care and careers for women constitute highlights of the pro-

grammes for women. Programmes for rural listeners, which are broadcast from every station, deal with such problems as care of live-stock, use of chemical fertilizers, cottage industries and improved methods of cultivation. The programmes are broadcast in regional languages, and are presented with the active co-operation of relevant departments of agriculture and the two agricultural universities. Daily composite programmes of special interest to the Armed Forces are also broadcast.

Music : The broadcasting of music—regarded as a universal as well as a very significant expression of the artistic genius of the people—is given approximately half the total transmission time of Radio Pakistan. Including commercial and film music, a total of up to 30 hours' music, comprising some 250 items, are broadcast every day. The balance between classical, folk and light music is determined by listeners' preferences.

Commercial Service : In 1961 Radio Pakistan started a Commercial Service to earn revenue by advertising commercial products. The Service includes folk-song programmes and popular music as well as talks and features. The Service is available at Karachi, Lahore, Dacca, Hyderabad, Rawalpindi, Peshawar and Chittagong.

External Services : The External Services of Radio Pakistan broadcast to the U.K., East and South-East Africa, Burma, Afghanistan, the Arabian penninsula, South-East Asia, South Asia, Indonesia, Iran, Turkey and Nepal. These external broadcasts use 14 languages, including a Swahili language service.

Transcription Service : This Service provides authentic material through research and surveys on various aspects of Pakistan. The Service produces programmes in English, French, Spanish, Arabic, Persian, Bengali and Urdu, and supplies broadcasting material to 80 countries. Radio Pakistan's music library contains records of theatre music, and of all outstanding musicians. Records of over 1,000 singers, including many no longer living, are preserved in its archives.

Monitoring : The Monitoring Department prepares reports on the latest news and views from important foreign stations. The monitoring is carried out on a round-the-clock basis, and reports on it are supplied to various relevant agencies of the Government of Pakistan.

Radio Pakistan also publishes fortnightly and monthly programmes in Bengali, Urdu, English, Arabic, Persian and Burmese. These publications include extracts from important speeches broadcast from various stations.

Development Under Way : During the year under review, the question of converting Radio Pakistan into a Corporation remained under active consideration. The study on its financial viability has been completed and final recommendations are under preparation.

Construction of the Broadcasting House and installation of the 120 kw medium-wave transmitter at Multan were completed; and broadcasts from it have been on the air since November 21, 1970. Soon after this, work on the Radio Station at Hyderabad, including the installation of a 120 kw medium-wave transmitter, was also completed, and it started broadcasting on February 4, 1971. At Khulna, work was completed on the installation of a 10 kw relay transmitter, and it also started functioning on February 4, 1971.

The construction of buildings for the following transmitters has been started: one 1,000 kw medium-wave transmitter each at Dacca and Islamabad; a 150 kw medium-wave transmitter at Quetta; a 100 kw short-wave transmitter at Dacca and two 100 kw short-wave transmitters at Islamabad.

Installation of two 250 kw short-wave transmitters at Islamabad has been started, and the installation of the High Frequency Aerial System at Dacca has made considerable progress.

Apart from the implementation of these physical projects, work is in progress on completing recommendations for the development of broadcasting under the Fourth Plan. The programme of expansion envisaged in these recommendations is estimated to cost Rs. 210 million, of which Rs. 125 million are to be spent during the Fourth Plan period.

Major items in this include the completion of the above-mentioned projects as well as extensions for the Radio Stations at Dacca, Rangpur, Sylhet, Rajshahi, Chittagong, Hyderabad and Quetta; the installation of frequency modulation (FM) transmitters at all Radio Stations, so as to provide high-quality reception for special programmes broadcast over a short range—particularly of music; a powerful short-wave transmitter for Dacca; a new Broadcasting House in the Second Capital; a 100 kw medium-wave transmitter for Chittagong; and a 100 kw medium-wave transmitter for Peshawar.

When these schemes of expansion have been implemented, the medium-wave coverage in West Pakistan will be well over 70 per cent of its area and 90 per cent of its population, while in East Pakistan, the entire area and its off-shore islands will be covered by medium-wave broadcasts.

Television

The beginnings of television in Pakistan are quite recent, as the Government took its decision to introduce it only in October 1963. At first, two experimental stations were opened—at Lahore on November 26, 1964, and at Dacca on December 25, 1964—and operated under contract with the Government by the Nippon Electric Company of Japan. On the successful completion of this experimental phase, the Television Promotors Company was set up as a private limited company in February 1965 to operate the two pilot stations. Then on June 29, 1967, this company was converted into a public limited company, named the Pakistan Television Corporation.

The management of this Corporation is vested in a Board of Directors. Five of the eight Directors, including the Chairman and Managing Director, are nominated by the Government, and three by the Nippon Electric Company

of Japan. The Corporation has an authorized capital of Rs. 5 million and a paid-up capital of Rs. 30.88 million, of which the Government has invested Rs. 24.5 million and the private sector Rs. 6.38 million.

Late in 1967, a comprehensive scheme was prepared, which envisaged providing TV coverage for 90 per cent of the population by 1975. For this purpose it proposed setting up four full-fledged TV Stations at Lahore, Dacca, Rawalpindi and Karachi, 13 Retelecast Stations; 2 Central Production Units; and 3 Audience Participation Studios. This programme was approved by the National Economic Council in October 1968, at a capital cost of Rs. 157.8 million, including a foreign exchange component of Rs. 60.4 million.

The implementation of the programme had already started in 1967, when on November 2, the Karachi TV Station, equipped with a 6 kw transmitter, went on the air as the first full-fledged station with the latest production facilities, including video tape recorders (VTR) and a mobile TV unit. It provides excellent service within a 50-mile radius, and under favourable weather conditions can be viewed with fair clarity up to Hyderabad. Within the year 1968/69, television stations with 6 kw transmitters have also been established at Dacca, Lahore, and Rawalpindi/Islamabad, whose transmitter has been set up at Pindi Point in Murree.

However, work on completing the facilities at these TV stations is at present still continuing. Installation of equipment in the otherwise ready second studio at the Karachi TV station is awaiting the arrival of an air-conditioning plant. New buildings for the Lahore and Dacca TV stations were nearing completion by the middle of 1971. All the additional equipment for TV stations at Dacca and Lahore has been imported and is to be installed before the end of 1971. In addition, land for four retelecast stations in East Pakistan and three in West Pakistan has been acquired, and orders for the required equipment have been placed.

Programmes : The fundamental objective of the Corporation continues to be to provide knowledge and information through intelligent entertainment. The realization of this objective is sought in programmes on literature and culture, quiz competitions, dramas, features, interviews, discussions, documentation and programmes relating to national integration.

In spite of limited studio facilities, live programmes occupy a predominent position, their present ratio to canned programmes being 65 : 35. Exchange of programmes between TV stations, in the form of both VTR and film, started in 1967, is now carried on extensively. Since July 1968, VTR and film programmes are also being exchanged with Iran, and arrangements for a similar exchange with Turkey are under way.

In the same month, late night transmissions for discriminating audiences were introduced, including lectures by eminent personalities, classical music by outstanding musicians and special interest films. Full-length feature films are also broadcast in special transmissions once a week from all TV Stations, Pakistani and foreign films alternating with each other.

In 1970, a series of political talks given by Party Chiefs were telecast

on the eve of the General Elections in order to acquaint viewers with the objectives and programmes of their political parties. For the first time in the history of television, a special non-stop 30-hour election transmission was arranged to inform viewers of the results of the General Elections. Similarly, a special transmission of 28½ hours was arranged for the Provincial Election results.

TV programmes generate a considerable amount of interest, some appreciative and some volubly if not constructively critical. Mail received by TV stations indicates that certain programmes achieve considerable popularity among a wide cross-section of viewers. In the production of plays, while standards achieved are uneven—and in particular, the whining or whimpering manner of speech all too frequently used to express sorrow, pain and anxiety is unfortunate—the spirit of experiment is very much alive and some significant successes have been achieved.

In general, notable successes of 1970 included the following: *In retrospect*, a series of interviews with veteran political leaders and those who were in the vanguard of the freedom struggle; *Dafeenay*, film documentaries based on the archaeological heritage of Pakistan; *Kasauti*, a popular quiz programme; *Taleem-i-Balighan*, an Urdu play by the well-known playwright, Khwaja Moinuddin; *Ali Baba*, a ballet; special coverage of the final hockey match of the Asian Games between Pakistan and India at Bangkok. And in the first half of 1971, the serial *Zia Mohiuddin Show* covered a remarkable range of interests, in both contemporary life and art, with very considerable finesse and talent, while Ktv's production of an Urdu translation of the Bengali drama, *Night Guard*, presented a quite outstanding performance of a really good play.

Educational Television (ETV): Preliminary investigations to introduce educational television are in progress. Professor A. Hungerford, an expert on educational television from Pennsylvania State University, came to Pakistan for two months and submitted his report, entitled A Plan to Adapt Television to the Needs of Education in Pakistan, in November 1968. On the basis of the recommendations of this report, ETV telecasts are eventually to include programmes on agriculture, family planning, health, sanitation, child-care and adult education, under a phased programme. To be televized in the mornings or late afternoons, these programmes will be watched on community sets to be installed by the Government, as well as on private TV sets.

Central Television Institute: Established in January 1967, this Institutue has so far trained 171 persons in different fields of television work, of which 40 completed their training in 1970.

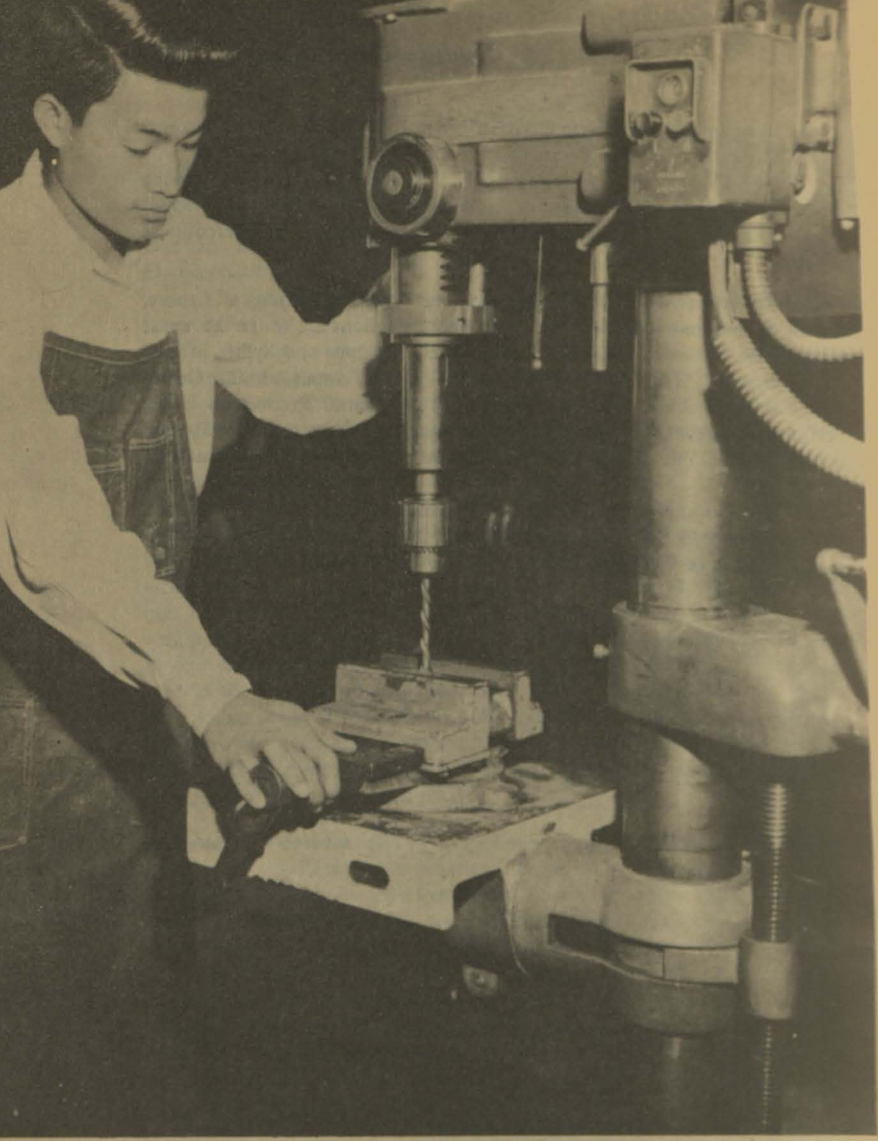
Asian Television Service (ATS): Incorporated in April 1967, and a subsidiary company of the Pakistan Television Corporation, ATS produces news and documentary films, including international coverage. In addition to supplying the four TV stations in Pakistan, ATS releases news films of interest to foreign viewers to some 60 countries through the European TV Service.

News films are exchanged with Pakistan's partners in RCD. On an average, ATS daily syndicates news stories of 15 minutes duration.

The TV news films produced by ATS on the East Pakistan Cyclone of November 1970 won an award in the World News Films Festival, London, making Pakistan the first developing country to receive such an international award.

Future Development : In addition to the four main TV Stations at Lahore, Dacca, Rawalpindi and Karachi, 13 Retelecast Stations are to be set up at Chittagong, Khulna, Rajshahi, Coxes Bazar, Rangpur and Sylhet in East Pakistan, and at Hyderabad, Lyallpur, Bahawalpur, Khanpur, Multan, Quetta and Rahimyar Khan in West Pakistan. Two Central Production Units, one in East Pakistan and one in West Pakistan, and three Audience Participation Studios, one in East Pakistan and two in West Pakistan, are also to be set up.

With the implementation of these projects by the end of 1975, television coverage would increase to reach 47 million of the population in East Pakistan and 35 million in West Pakistan.



An East Pakistani trainee operating a machine tool.

Films

ALTHOUGH after Independence the film industry in Pakistan faced a serious crisis, it dates back to the first decade of this century, when the first cinema houses were established in the provinces of Bengal, the Panjab and Sind. By the thirties, studios for the production of silent films had been established in Lahore; and these were later converted to sound studios, producing films both in Urdu and Panjabi, which met with considerable success. However, the financial investment and proprietary rights in this industry, and the films produced by it, were mainly confined to members of the minority community, who with the partition of the Subcontinent left for India. Film technicians, too, were largely non-Muslims and also migrated. Much of the studio equipment at Lahore was destroyed or damaged during the disturbances in 1947. The industry thus had to be built up again almost from scratch; and in the beginning there were only two studios in Lahore and two Muslim-owned distribution agencies and two cinema houses in Lahore.

The first film made in Pakistan after Independence was released on September 2, 1948, and this was followed by another eight in 1949. By 1950, the construction of new studios at Lahore had been started and a number of Muslim producers, actors and technicians had migrated to Pakistan from India. The same year 12 films were released, and some of these proved quite successful at the box office. A Film Advisory Committee was set up by the Government in July 1950, with participation from film producers and exhibitors, on the one hand, and representatives from Central and Provincial Ministries of Information and Broadcasting, Education, and Industries, on the other. The task of this Committee was to review the working of the industry; discuss and remove difficulties in the way of its progress;

and make suitable recommendations to Government for its improvement and expansion. However, with shortages of equipment and materials, the output of films remained at an average of eight per year during the next four years. As measures were taken to meet this situation, output rose to 19 films in 1955 and 31 films in 1956. Then in 1958, the Government set up the East Pakistan Film Development Corporation at Dacca, and the construction of a studio at Dacca was also begun.

Today the Pakistani film industry produces a total of some 200 films every year. Whereas the industry had started with only two poorly equipped studios in Lahore; now it has 11, of which six are in Lahore, two in Karachi, and three in Dacca. For the exhibition of films, there are about 600 cinemas and over 150 distributors in the country as a whole.

But while the quantitative development of the film industry has been very rapid and its equipment has improved, the quality of feature films produced generally still leaves much to be desired. Various factors are responsible for this; but among these probably the most important are a lack of sufficient incentive and initiative to produce better films, the absence of an effective tradition of stage and drama, and the lack of proper training facilities for actors, directors and producers, particularly in West Pakistan. Efforts to deal with these and other limitations are being made, of which film festivals and awards and the East Pakistan Film Development Corporation are significant features. But much remains to be done to achieve real progress, including more effective co-operation between the productive and creative elements of the industry, constructive criticism that encourages improvement, and perhaps an elevation of standards of drama, acting, and production through the example and experimentation of television programmes that achieve merit as well as popularity.

Producers : There are about 150 active film producers in the country. They make films mainly in three languages, i.e. Urdu, Bengali and Panjabi, but some are now being produced in Sindhi, and two films in Pashto and one in Gujrati have also been released.

A black and white film is generally made at a cost of Rs. 2,00,000 to Rs. 7,00,000 and takes from six months to a year to complete. In recent years Pakistani producers have taken an increasing interest in the production of colour films, and their number has steadily increased. There now are three colour laboratories, one each at Lahore, Karachi and Dacca, which process all colour films within the country, although all raw film is at present imported. The cost of such colour films currently amounts to anything between Rs. 700,000 and Rs. 1,500,000 In the case of both types of film, it is initially the producer who finances it; but towards the end of actual production, distributors cover 50 to 75 per cent of the production cost.

Censorship: Before public exhibition, films are censored; but this censorship is basically liberal, and within the limits of propriety, allows considerable play for the development of creative ideas and artistic expression. There is a Central Board of Film Censors at Rawalpindi, which has a branch office at Dacca

and touring centres at Lahore and Karachi. Headed by a Chairman, it comprises official and non-official members.

A film may be certified for universal exhibition, or be passed for adults only—or it may be considered fit for exhibition only after deletion of certain portions. It may even be rejected as entirely unsuitable. In the case of complete rejection, the producer can appeal to a special committee constituted by the Government, whose decision is final. The usual grounds for rejection are: infringement of national security or law and order, injuring religious susceptibilities, promoting immorality, obscenity, or crime, defaming individuals and blackmail. While generally not censored in foreign films, the kiss is taboo for Pakistani films.

Cinema Halls : Licences for cinema halls are issued by the Government. Requirements of the licence are: suitability of the building for exhibition, observance of municipal laws, avoidance of overcrowding, and maintaining fire precautions. Inspections are carried out from time to time by an inspection team appointed by the Government to ensure that all conditions of the licence are properly complied with.

Exhibition : There are about 600 cinema halls in the country and many more are under construction. In addition, there are over 30 touring talkies, all of them in West Pakistan. About a dozen cinemas are fitted with 70 MM equipment, and in Karachi there is also a drive-in cinema.

Distribution : Distributors have divided Pakistan into three circuits; the Karachi, Sind and Baluchistan circuit; the Panjab and North-West Frontier circuit; and the East Pakistan circuit. Distribution rights are therefore assigned on the basis of these circuits.

There are about 150 distributing agencies in the country, which control the distribution of all films, Pakistani and foreign, meant for commercial screening. Among these distributors there are subsidiary agencies of American and other foreign companies which arrange the distribution of certain foreign films.

Export : A Film Export Corporation has been established to promote the export of Pakistani films; and it has a branch office in London to serve the European market.

An agreement has been reached between film producers of Pakistan and Indonesia for the export of Pakistani films to that country; and a similar agreement exists between Afghanistan and Pakistan.

Other markets are being explored. In this connection, film delegations have toured a number of countries in South-East Asia, East Africa and the Middle East, and held talks for bilateral agreements relating to the exchange of films.

Documentaries : Documentaries are made mainly by the Department of Films and Publications (DFP), which produces news-reels, educational and

informative documentaries and films depicting the culture of Pakistan. It has so far produced about 440 news-reels and 250 documentary films.

The Department lends a helping hand to such international agencies as the United Nations and UNESCO when films have to be dubbed in Pakistani regional languages, and helps to arrange circulation within the country. Similarly, the Department also advises and extends guidance and assistance to foreign television, documentary, news-reel and feature film producers.

News-reels and documentaries produced by DFP are released in all the cinema halls of Pakistan every week. The Department also sends news-reels and documentaries to several countries, including Iran and Turkey, to which three to four reels are sent every month.

Films made by DFP have been well received abroad as well as at home, and so far, they have secured 50 international awards and certificates of merit, besides 6 national awards.

As the demand for documentary films is constantly increasing, independent film producers are also being commissioned to make films for the Ministries and Departments of both the Central and Provincial Governments. And besides DFP, some Provincial Government and autonomous bodies also produce documentary films on subjects of their choice.

Government Support : The Government has extended its support for the over-all development of the industry; and the establishment of the East Pakistan Film Development Corporation at Dacca in 1958 was an event of great significance to the growth of the industry.

The Corporation has taken the initiative in providing facilities for the training of aspirants in the art of film-making—directors, script-writers, actors and technicians. Many have been trained in EPFDC studios, and some have been sent abroad for further training. In order to improve standards of professional competence, the Corporation has also set up the Film Institute of Pakistan to provide theoretical and practical courses in the art of film-making.

Advisory Council : This Council was set up in March 1967 by the Government to co-ordinate all matters relating to the film industry and to promote the production of better films, in line with national traditions and ideology.

The Council has been given full powers to deal with problems of the industry, particularly in the following respects: provision of raw material; technical equipment and machinery; fixation of tariff rates on raw material and different classes of equipment; provision of incentives, such as awards or exemption from entertainment tax for approved films on national themes; pre-censorship guidance in respect of subjects and themes; policy relating to export; import and exhibition of foreign films; film exchange; promotion of film clubs and film festivals; and joint production of films.

Festivals and Awards : Pakistan has participated in international film festivals held in Berlin, Moscow, Cannes, Venice, Colombo, Edinburgh and other

places, and a number of prizes have been won. To stimulate the art and technique of film-making, and to encourage experiment and research in ail branches of the industry, various national awards have been instituted, and film festivals are held from time to time. Generally, the awards are organized by the industry itself, and the Government is not directly associated with them.

Exhibitions of foreign films have also been organized. In 1965, the first exhibition of modern world classics was held at Dacca, Karachi and Lahore. The countries which participated were Ceylon, India, China, France, Iran, Japan, Poland, Turkey and the USSR. Then in 1969, the Government decided to sponsor and organize festivals of feature/documentary films in the context of cultural agreements with various film-producing countries of the world. For this purpose, a Central Film Festivals Committee has been set up, with representatives of the Ministry of Information and heads of the Central mass media agencies, which has secured the co-operation of the private sector to look after the commercial needs and arrangements of the festivals. In 1969, a festival of Czechoslovak films was organized in February and of Bulgarian films in October-November, and in June-July 1970 of U.A.R. films.



The rider—a ceramic toy from East Pakistan.

Sports

BEFORE Pakistan emerged on the geopolitical map of the world on August 14, 1947, its people helped the Subcontinent earn the title of 'hockey wizards'. From the day hockey was included in the Olympic Games, the supremacy of undivided India was never in doubt. A casual look at the composition of the successive teams that sailed out to mesmerize and vanquish all opposition shows the preponderance of Pakistanis.

In the world of wrestling, Gama brought undivided India into the limelight. With an unbeaten record, both at home and abroad, he floored his redoubtable adversaries in the twinkling of an eye to become a legend in his own life-time. Similarly, the contribution made by Mohammedan Sporting in football cannot be overemphasized.

Rich in its sports heritage and abounding in talents, Pakistan in its early troubled years lacked experienced organizers. Enthusiasm there was in plenty, but this has never been a substitute for experience. If Pakistan did not do well in all sports, it was primarily because of this handicap. A country passing through the birth-pangs of creation, and surrounded by a myriad of pressing problems, could hardly be expected to provide a fully favourable atmosphere for the growth of sports. It is, therefore, necessary to view the development of sports and the achievements of its sportsmen in this historical perspective.

To symbolize the new nation's support for sports, the Quaid-i-Azam himself inaugurated the First National Games at Karachi. Since then Government patronage and help has enabled local sports associations and federations to organize various sports. At present, there are 26 national games and sports federations.

These autonomous bodies organize and promote their own respective

games and are directly affiliated to similar international organizations. They are, however, financially aided by the Pakistan Sports Control Board, which is a semi-autonomous agency in the Central Ministry of Education. According to its Charter, the Board, set up in 1959, is the executing agency of the Ministry in the field of developing and promoting sports.

The Pakistan Olympic Association, which also functions under the Board, co-ordinates and maintains liaison between the Olympic movement in Pakistan and the International Olympic Committee, the Asian Games and the Commonwealth Games. Besides these, two regional bodies, the East Pakistan Sports Federation and the West Pakistan Sports Control Board also function in the two wings of the country.

To date, Pakistan has won 134 medals in the Olympic, Asian and Commonwealth Games. Pakistan won its first international medal at Manila. Participating in the Second Asian Games in 1954, Pakistan collected a bag of 13 medals (Gold-5, Silver-6, Bronze-2). Since then, Pakistan has been winning a number of medals at Asian, Commonwealth and Olympic Games. The 134th medal was won at the Asian Games by Pakistan's national hockey team in 1970. The only other team game in which Pakistan has won a medal is volleyball. Way back in 1962, Pakistan won the Bronze medal at the IVth Asian Games at Djakarta.

Cricket : The visit of a strong West Indies team under the captainship of John Goddard as ealry as 1948 was a recognition of the cricketing prowess of Pakistan. Facing a star-studded opposition, Pakistan held the all-conquering West Indian team to a draw in the only representative match played at Lahore. This was followed by a successful tour to Ceylon and a visit by the strong Commonwealth team skippered by Jock Livingstone. It was, however, an exciting 4-wicket victory over Nigel Howard's MCC team at Karachi in December 1951 which earned Pakistan the full-fledged membership of the Imperial Cricket Conference (ICC).

After achieving Test status, Pakistan sent out a team to tour India in 1952. Though Pakistan lost the five-Test series (losing two, winning one and drawing two), it soon made the cricketing world sit up. Within five years of recognition by the ICC, Pakistan achieved a feat which no other cricketing country has accomplished in such a brief spell. Pakistan beat every member of the ICC (except South Africa, which follows a policy of *Apartheid* in sports) in her very first official encounter with these members. For this unique performance, the gallant band of cricketers, ably led and inspired by Abdul Hafeez Kardar, will go down in history as a most game and spirited team.

In 1954, Pakistan reached a high water-mark in cricket. Touring England for the first time, Pakistan's team came to be known as the giant-killers. In the fourth Test at the Oval, Fazal Mahmood ran through the English batting side twice in the match to enable Pakistan to beat England by 24 runs. No other country in the world, not even the Australians and the West Indians, had been able to beat England in their very first encounter. It was a case of the babe bearding the lion in its own den.

India paid a return visit to Pakistan in 1954/55, and spectator partici-

pation in cricket reached a new high point. Huge crowds thronged the Test arenas in Dacca, Lahore, Peshawar, Bahawalpur and Karachi. All the five Tests ended in a draw, but despite this stalemate, keen competition evoked unprecedented enthusiasm for cricket in Pakistan.

Later in 1955, Pakistan played host to the New Zealanders. Henry Cave and his men could not stop the Pakistanis from winning the three-Test series. After easy victories for Pakistan at Karachi and Lahore, the New Zealanders fought manfully for a draw to prevent Pakistan scoring a hat trick.

On their way back, after the 1956 English tour, the Australians stopped over in Karachi to play a solitary Test. The Australians found Fazal Mahmood unplayable on the matted surface and were soundly beaten. This creditable win further bolstered Pakistan's reputation as a cricketing country. In the vanquished team were such stalwarts as Miller, Lindwall, Ian Johnson, Davidson, Harvey, Archer and Benaud. Having scored Test victories over India, England, New Zealand and Australia, Pakistan was now ready to take the West Indians on.

Kardar led the first-ever Pakistani team to the Caribbean Islands in the winter of 1957. Though the Pakistanis lost the rubber 1-3, they won fame and admiration. West Indians are a difficult team to beat anywhere, but even more so on their own hard and fast wickets. This was quite evident in the very first Test at Bridgetown. When all seemed lost, Hanif Mohammad, who was thereafter cited as 'Cricketeer of the Year' by Wisden, led a glorious resistance. He batted for 16 hours 40 minutes for his 337, in the longest ever stay at the crease by any batsman, to help Pakistan declare at 659 for seven, her highest-ever total in a Test innings. The result was an honourable draw. But the West Indians won the next three Tests in a row. Pakistan disrupted the West Indian winning sequence by recording an innings victory in the last Test at Georgetown, to end the series in a blaze of glory.

When the West Indians paid a return visit to Pakistan, the home team snatched the rubber away from them. Led by Fazal Mahmood, Pakistan picked up the winning performance they had displayed at Georgetown about two years back. By following up this with convincing victories over the West Indians in the first and second Tests at Karachi and Dacca, Pakistan thus produced a hat-trick of victories against the West Indies, to make it quits with the land of Calypsos.

In the third and final Test at Lahore, however, a totally transformed touring team, too, avenged their defeat. But Fazal Mahmood, captaining Pakistan for the first time, had already achieved the distinction of winning a rubber in his very first engagement.

Later in 1959, the Australians descended on Pakistan to avenge their defeat. Richie Benaud's men won the first two Tests at Dacca and Lahore, and drew the Karachi Test to take back the rubber.

The next year, Pakistan visited India for the second time. All the 14 matches, including five Tests, ended in a draw. While rain saved India from a possible defeat at Calcutta, only a last ditch battle by Pakistan's tail-enders rescued Pakistan from defeat in the last Test at Delhi. Besides

being unproductive in terms of results, the tour was listless and failed to evoke the interest the first Indian tour had generated. Close at heel, followed Ted Dexter's MCC team. But that too failed to put life into Pakistan's Cricket. After losing the first Test at Lahore, Pakistan managed to draw the remaining two Tests at Dacca and Karachi.

The summer of 1962 found Pakistan touring England under a new captain, Javed Burki. Most of the old players had now retired, and Pakistan was in the process of building a new winning combination. It was, therefore, not surprising that Pakistan lost four of the five Tests played in England, and Pakistan's reputation as a giant-killer was seriously jolted. The Board of Control for Cricket in Pakistan (BCCP) then invited a strong Commonwealth team for a short tour in the winter of 1963. All the three unofficial Tests resulted in a draw. Visiting Ceylon for a short tour, Pakistan lost the only unofficial Test in a low-scoring game.

It was at this discomforting stage that the mantle of leadership fell on Hanif Mohammad. He was called upon to lead the Pakistani team on a combined short tour of Australia and New Zealand. Stalemates punctuated by defeats had made the cricket scene look gloomy. Much of the future of cricket in Pakistan depended on the tour's outcome. The team returned to the shores of Pakistan with a creditable unbeaten record, after battling with the redoubtable Australians at Melbourne. This showed that the draw against the Australians at Karachi, about two months earlier, had not been a mere chance.

A surprise lay in store for Pakistan in New Zealand. The Kiwis, who had been beaten squarely in previous encounters, put up a wonderful fight on their home ground. Under the captainship of John Reud, New Zealand drew all three Tests in the 1964/65 series.

Pakistan, however, asserted its superiority over the New Zealanders in March-April 1965, when they stopped over in Pakistan for a mini-tour *en route* to England. Pakistan won the first Test by an innings, drew the second, and won the Third by eight wickets to win the rubber.

The following year Ceylon received quite a drubbing from Pakistan. On their return visit to Pakistan, Ceylon was beaten 3-0 in the Tests, first by 10 wickets, second by an innings and 37 runs, and third and last by an innings and 35 runs. The 1964 defeat had thus been fully avenged.

With an eye on building up the nucleus of a strong team, Pakistan hosted an under-25 MCC team. Though young Pakistani colts under Asif Iqbal could not beat the MCC boys in either of the three matches, the tour did throw up a couple of youngsters who were later destined to represent Pakistan. Besides this, the early 1967 visit by the MCC enabled Pakistan to prepare for the trying tour of England in August.

In its third tour of the home of cricket, Pakistan again lost the rubber, but not before they had put up a plucky fight. In the very first Test at Lord's, Hanif hit up a glorious unbeaten 187. Hanif's innings not only saved Pakistan from what looked like an ignominious defeat, but also poised her for a possible victory. The match, however, ended in a draw. After losing the second Test at Nottingham, Pakistan showed admirable resilience at the Oval before going down. In that process Asif Iqbal scored the fastest Test

100 for Pakistan, and set up a world record for the ninth wicket.

Pakistan had been beaten but certainly not disgraced. A strong team of Commonwealth cricketers, led by former Australian skipper Richie Benaud, visited Pakistan in 1968. In the first-ever unofficial Test played at Multan, Pakistan beat the visitors by five wickets. Benaud's men tried very hard in the remaining two representative games, but Pakistan managed to emerge unscathed.

When Colin Cowdrey led out the MCC team to Pakistan in early 1969, he seemed quite aware of the unpredictable quality of Pakistani cricket. Unfortunately, the three-Test series was played under great stress and strain. Those were the days of political unrest and turmoil, which hardly make for good cricket. Pakistan managed to hold the visitors to a draw in the Tests at Dacca and Lahore, but the third Test at Karachi was abandoned as student demonstrators, protesting against holding the match on a day fixed for a general strike, invaded the ground.

Towards the end of 1969, the New Zealand cricket team again visited Pakistan. After having drawn the first Test, at Karachi, the visitors outplayed the home team at Lahore, and then drew the third and final Test at Dacca to win the rubber for the first time in their long history of cricket. After the first Test, Hanif Mohammad, who had been a sheet-anchor of Pakistan's batting from the very beginning of the country's participation in international cricket, announced his retirement.

The year 1970 was a lean year for Pakistan's cricket: the national team did not go out on tour and Pakistan itself also did not entertain any visiting team. The only international cricket engagement was a charity match in aid of the East Pakistan Cyclone victims, organized by the Cricket Writers Club of Pakistan. Gary Sobers, the redoubtable West Indian cricketer, who led the World XI in the four-day match at Karachi, however, saw enough talent in the Pakistan side to warn the English selectors not to take Pakistan lightly during its proposed tour of England in the summer of 1971. And he knew what he was talking about, for Pakistan beat his team convincingly by 226 runs, with more than two and a half hours to spare.

Though the national team had no opportunity to show its prowess in a full-fledged tour—even a two-month tour of under-25 cricketers to England was cancelled due to the tour of a South African team scheduled for about the same time—individual cricketers were often in the limelight of English cricket. Pakistan's former Test captain, Saeed Ahmad, was invited to share the distinction of leading the Cavaliers against the English Counties, with Australian skipper, Bobby Simpson, and the former English captain, Ted Dexter. The Cavalier tour was arranged when the MCC had to cancel the South African tour of England.

Similarly, Intikhab Alam, Pakistan's Test captain, and Mushtaq Mohammad were invited to play for the World XI in a series of unofficial tests against England. Other Pakistanis in county cricket continued to give a fine account of themselves. For the second successive year in County Championships, a county having a Pakistani cricketer on its side finished at the top. In 1969, it was Glamorgan with Majid Jehangir that won this

hard-fought competition. And in 1970, it was Asif Iqbal's splendid—that helped Kent to triumph.

At home, the BCCP—which organizes and controls the game, including the Quaid-i-Azam and BCCP Trophies—introduced an Under-19 Tournament in search of new talent. Pakistan's tours abroad and those of Pakistan by other countries are also arranged by the BCCP.

Hockey : Pakistan reigns supreme in hockey by virtue of its victory at the Mexico Olympics in 1968 and at the Asian Games in 1970. For decades hockey has been the most popular team game in Pakistan. Though no statistics are available, the large-scale spectator and player participation in this fast, exciting game in all parts of the country makes it a great national sport. The Mexico victory has naturally whetted the enthusiasm for hockey.

Pakistan's ascent to world supremacy started at the Melbourne Olympics in 1956. Since then Pakistan has regularly figured in the finals of the World Olympics. Pakistan won the Gold Medal at the Rome Olympics for the first time, then was beaten to second place at Tokyo in 1964, and finally reasserted its superiority in 1968 at the Mexico Games.

In the Asian Games, too, Pakistan has won the Gold Medal thrice in the four meetings held so far. Pakistan beat India at Tokyo in 1958, when hockey was introduced in the Asian Games competition for the first time. The performance was repeated in 1962 at Djarkata. Pakistan has conceded the Asian title only once to India, when they were beaten by their arch rivals at Bangkok in 1966; but then regained it at the same city in 1970.

To have a clear picture of the ups and downs of Pakistan's fortunes in hockey, its history could be divided into four periods: (1) 1947-52, (2) 1952-62, (3) 1963-67, and (4) 1967 to date.

In the first phase, Pakistan met with more disappointment than success. In spite of the fact that Pakistan fielded some of the finest exponents of the game, it reached the top only once, when it shared the championship with Holland in the World Hockey Tournament at Barcelona in 1950. Pakistan's performance in the two World Olympics at London and Helsinki was disappointing indeed. They had to be content with fourth place in the world ranking.

Then came the second phase (1952-62), in which new blood was introduced, the organizational set-up improved to groom, train and encourage new talents. An Expert's Committee went into the causes of Pakistan's defeats and suggested ways and means to remove them. One of the measures to improve the standard was to provide more and more international competition.

A West German national team was invited to tour Pakistan in 1954/55 for four weeks. The tour enabled Pakistan to put its new strength to test. The results were flattering. Pakistan won the first Test by 6-3 and the second by 5-0. The third Test ended in a 2-2 draw. Later in the year Pakistan toured Ceylon and Singapore, winning all the Tests by easy margins.

Encouraged by these results and fortified by hard, systematic training, Pakistan went to the Melbourne Games with high hopes. It,

therefore, did not surprise the Pakistanis to find themselves in the finals. Not only did Pakistan come within breathing distance of the first Olympic gold medal, it was unlucky enough to lose by a solitary and disputable goal to India. On their way back home from the Olympics, Pakistan defeated the Singapore Olympic XI by 11-0 and 9-3.

On its way to Tokyo, to participate in the Asian Games, Pakistan toured New Zealand in March-April 1958. Of the three Tests played against New Zealand, Pakistan won the first and the third by 3-0 and 5-0, while drawing the second 2-2. No tests were played against Australia, but Pakistan won its two matches there without much ado.

At the Asian Games at Tokyo, Pakistan reached the finals, beating Japan (5-0), South Korea (8-0) and Malaya (6-0). The final match between India and Pakistan produced a goalless draw. The Gold Medal was, however, awarded to Pakistan on the basis of a better goal average in the Tournament. On its way back, the Pakistani team stopped over in Hong Kong, Malaya and Singapore, beating their national teams with the greatest of ease.

Two years later, at Rome, Pakistan proved that there was no element of mere luck involved in winning the Asian title. Meeting India, who had remained unbeaten world champions since hockey was introduced in World Olympics. Pakistan won the final by 1-0. India's dethronement from the world championship therefore created an Olympic record.

As part of the preparation for the World Olympics at Rome in 1960, Pakistan had earlier visited Kenya. Out of the 15 matches played during the tour, Pakistan lost only one, winning the rest. Pakistan scored 92 goals on the tour, and only 11 were scored against it. Of the three hard-fought Tests, Pakistan won the first (4-2) and third (2-1), and lost the second (1-3).

After the Olympics, the new world champions undertook a tour of European countries; and of the four matches Pakistan played in West Germany, England and France, the tourists won three and drew against France. Meanwhile, the New Zealanders, returning from the Rome Olympics, played two matches against the second string of Pakistan. The visitors lost one and drew the other match.

Before the Pakistani team landed at Djarkarta to defend its Asian title in the 1962 Asian Games, it undertook another tour of Malaya, Singapore and Ceylon, and later revisited East Africa. While the South-East Asian tour did not pose any problem for Pakistan, the East African tour turned out to be quite trying. Though Pakistan won 10 out of the 13 matches, they had to concede two victories and draw one match. Pakistan again won one Test, while Uganda held the tourists to a goalless draw in the only Test match against that country.

The pre-Asian games experience, however, stood Pakistan in good stead at Djarkarta, where Pakistan succeeded in retaining the gold medal by defeating India 2-0. The team's march to the final was impressive indeed. They beat Japan (5-0), Ceylon (9-1), Singapore (4-0), Indonesia (8-0) and Malaya (5-0).

By winning against India in three successive meetings, Pakistan proved that its victories at Tokyo and Rome were not a flash in the pan. The

second phase of Pakistan's hockey was perhaps the brightest and most sparkling so far.

East Africa paid a return visit to Pakistan in the end of 1962. In the five-Test series Pakistan got the better of the tourists. Pakistan won the first Test at Multan by 3-0; but in the second encounter at Lahore, Kenya held Pakistan to a 1-1 draw. Pakistan again beat Kenya at Rawalpindi by 1-0 and at Dacca by 5-0, and drew the last Test at Karachi 0-0 to win the series again.

Then came the third phase (1963-67), in which the stalwarts, who had kept the nation's flag flying atop in international fields felt the strain of highly competitive hockey. One after the other, they retired from the international scene. The toll that time had taken of Pakistan's players was now in evidence.

During this period Pakistan lost its world title, and then its Asian crown as well. The coming events cast their shadows in the pre-Olympic Tournament at Lyons, where Pakistan was beaten by Holland (0-2) and by West Germany (0-1), and held to draw by Spain (1-1). The victories against Britain (3-0), Belgium (1-0), Japan (2-0) and U.S.A. (7-0) did not look impressive against these setbacks. Pakistan was placed fourth behind India, West Germany and Holland.

After the tournament, Pakistan toured Spain, England, Belgium, Holland, West Germany and the UAR. Though the tourists were surprised only once, when a Tarrasa XI defeated Pakistan by 1-0 at Barcelona, the results against other national teams were not particularly convincing. Pakistan beat Wales (2-1), Belgium (4-2), and Holland (3-2).

In April 1964, the Japanese national team further showed up the weaknesses of the Pakistani team. During their two-week tour the Japanese played three Tests, in which Pakistan could score only 5 goals against them. Japan drew the first Test (0-0), lost the second (0-3) and the third (1-2). In a total of 10 matches, the tourists won 3, lost 5 and drew 2.

Prior to the Tokyo Olympics, Pakistan visited Australia in September 1964 to play 13 matches, including two Tests. Pakistan could only manage to draw the series after they had lost the first Test at Melbourne (1-2), by winning the second Test on the following day at Sydney (2-1). Besides the one Test defeat, Pakistan also was beaten by a West Australian team at Perth by 1-0.

On arrival at the Tokyo Olympics, Pakistan exerted its best to retain the world title. With great determination and skill they were able to overwhelm Japan (1-0), Kenya (5-2), Britain (1-0), Rhodesia (6-0), New Zealand (2-0), Australia (2-1) and Spain (3-0), to reach the finals. That is where Pakistan's run of victories ended. India succeeded in beating Pakistan by a solitary goal to regain their lost world title.

A six-goal victory over Hong Kong in Hong Kong and a goalless draw in the only Test against the returning Dutch team at Karachi brought the curtain down on Pakistan's hockey in 1964.

The next year Pakistan proceeded on a goodwill tour of Indonesia, and won both the Tests with an identical margin of 8-0. Later in 1965, Pakistan revisited East Africa, where Kenya held them to a goalless draw in the first

three Tests, and then beat the tourists 2-1 to take the lead in the seven-Test series. In the fifth Test, Pakistan fought back heroically to beat Kenya 3-0 to level off the series. In the sixth Test Pakistan won by a solitary goal to take the lead, and drew the seventh and final Test to win the series. Out of the 24 matches played during the tour, Pakistan won 18, lost one and drew the rest. During this process, the Pakistani team scored 92 goals, while 7 were scored against them.

The return visit of the Indonesian team in November 1965 was largely a goodwill mission. No tests were played. Of the club and zonal matches played, the visitors won one and lost 7 matches.

Before participating in the International Hockey Festival at Hamburg in 1966, Pakistan visited Poland, West Germany, Belgium and Holland. In the Tests played against Belgium and Holland, Pakistan won by solitary goals, and Poland was beaten 2-1.

At the Festival, however, Holland and West Gemany defeated Pakistan, and Poland and India held it to a 1-1 draw. By defeating Belgium (1-0), Switzerland (1-0) and Britain (3-0), Pakistan just managed to be placed fourth behind India, West Germany and Holland. This placing was an exact repetition of what had happened at Lyons three-years before.

With the Asian Games in sight, Pakistan invited Germany to tour the country. Its team arrived in September to play nine matches, including five Tests. Pakistan won the series by winning to first three Tests at Lahore, Rawalpindi and Peshawar. The fourth Test at Dacca was rained off, while the fifth and last Test at Karachi ended in a goalless draw.

The second warming-up exercise for the Asian Games consisted of another tour of Kenya in 1966. Out of the 12 matches of this tour, including six Test matches, Pakistan won nine, lost one and drew two. The Test series were hard fought, Pakistan winning three, losing one and drawing two. Pakistan won all the three Tests by the barest of margins. If the match against Kenya's combined schools XI, which Pakistan won 7-0, is omitted, Pakistan scored only 14 goals in 11 matches, while 3 were netted against them.

After having lost the world title and being placed fourth twice in international competitions, and with no convincing victories to rehabilitate their confidence, Pakistan went to Bangkok to defend its Asian title in 1966. The weak national teams of Hong Kong, Thailand and Malaysia were soundly beaten; but Japan put up a plucky fight to hold the reigning Asian champions to a goalless draw. In the final against India, Pakistan fought on gamely only to be beaten by a solitary goal.

Shorn of all titles and minus all the players who and helped it reach the top, Pakistan was once again struggling hard to find its place at the top of the hockey ladder. A visit by Holland's national team in January-February 1967, and later by the Australian national team in September 1967, was arranged to weld a new world-beating side and to usher in a new phase in Pakistan's hockey.

Though Pakistan beat Holland and Australia in the three-Test home series, the team had not yet found its decisive touch. Holland drew the

first Test (1-1) and lost the second (1-3) and third (0-2), while Australia lost all the three Tests to Pakistan —1-2, 0-2 and 1-3.

Whatever comfort Pakistan may have drawn from these victories soon disappeared at the London Pre-Olympic Hockey Tournament in October 1967. Though Pakistan had the satisfaction of beating the world and Asian title-holders, India, by a solitary goal, it was shocked by both the Germanies, West and East, who defeated Pakistan by an identical margin of 2-1. Beaten back to fifth position, Pakistan licked its wounds and made redoubled efforts to regain its supremacy. Once again, Pakistan utilized the opportunity to tour European countries to firm up their strength.

In early 1968 Pakistan staged the International Pre-Olympic Hockey Festival at Lahore. Spain, Kenya, West Germany, Singapore, Ceylon and Malaysia responded to the invitation. Pakistan ended up at the top of the table with an unbeaten record. Out of the six matches played, Pakistan won four and drew two to gather 10 points. Not a single goal was scored against Pakistan, while Pakistan scored eight. In the only Test played against Kenya after the Festival, Pakistan beat the visitors 3-0.

A month later Pakistan followed Kenya to take part in the International Festival at Nairobi. Besides the teams from Kenya and Pakistan, the other participants were Nigeria, Uganda and West Germany. Pakistan finished second behind Kenya, but Pakistan had the highest goal average. Once again, not a single goal was scored against Pakistan. while Pakistan netted 25 goals in five matches. Out of these, two were goalless draws. So, in fact, Pakistan had scored 25 goals in three matches—a heartening event in the Olympic year.

After the Festival, Pakistan beat Kenya 4-0 in the first Test, but lost the second by a solitary goal. From there Pakistan hopped over to Uganda to play two tests, and beat its team in both the Tests by 2-0. Before Pakistan got down to its final preparation for the assault on the world title at Mexico, a Japanese team arrived on a short tour. The visitors were beaten in all of three Tests.

Thanks to an imaginative training programme, the new Pakistani team looked efficient, keen and well co-ordinated. Their physical fitness and skill paid off at Mexico. A happy blend of youth and experience, the Pakistani team made its presence felt from the very first encounter, when they defeated Holland by a wide margin of 6-0.

In the nine matches that Pakistan played in the Mexico Olympics, it scored 26 goals, and only five goals were recorded against it. While the goal tally for Pakistan was the highest in the Olympics, the goals against it were the lowest. Pakistan met with stiff resistance from West Germany in the semi-finals and from Australia in the finals; but greater skill and determination ultimately prevailed, and Pakistan won the Olympic Gold Medal for the second time in its brief history.

A relaxed happy team stopped over in East Germany to play two games—and lost both ! But in the International Hockey Tournament held in Lahore in March 1969, Pakistan showed that it had not lost its control. Except for India, Holland and Britain, all ranked countries participated.

As hosts, Pakistan entered two teams, and both the home teams ended up at the top of their respective pools.

Not content to rest on its hard-won laurels, Pakistan sent out a team to Europe and the UAR on a six-week tour. While the team remained unbeaten in all its matches, the exercise also enabled the world champions to draw upon new talents.

If 1968 stands out as the year when Pakistan established itself as the world champion, 1970 will be long remembered for Pakistan's successful bid to recapture the Asian title. Though marvellous goalkeeping by Thailand forced Pakistan to a goalless draw, in its other matches, the national team asserted its superiority in no uncertain terms.

The final against India at Bangkok was one of the most exciting international hockey encounters, in which Pakistan triumphed over their traditional rivals by 1-0, exactly 28 minutes after the allotted time. This well-earned victory gave Pakistan its only gold medal at the Asian Games.

Pakistan's performance at Bangkok wiped out earlier disappointments caused by the cancellation of the national team's tours to Australia and New Zealand and the abrupt end of its 27-day hockey tour of Kenya. Scheduled to play five Tests and eight other matches, the tour was abandoned after Pakistani players had been attacked in the third Test at Nairobi by Indian crowds. Pakistan won the first Test, while Kenya drew level in the series by winning the second. In the third Test, the match ended in a fiasco when Pakistan was leading 1-0. The violence at the hockey ground caused a good deal of frustration among members of the national team and hockey fans in Pakistan, because this tour, like the proposed tours of Australia and New-Zealand, was intended to prepare the national team for the Asian title.

However, there was another heart-warming event during the year: a 12-day tour of a Youth Hockey Eleven to Ceylon. In all, the touring youngsters played two Tests and five friendly matches, winning the first Test against their Ceylon counterparts by 2-0, and drawing the second. They also won four of the five friendly matches, notching up a goal tally of 26. So sound was their defence that they conceded only one goal in seven matches. Aziz Mirza and Samiullah proved themselves to be prolific scorers, netting 11 goals each on the tour.

Off the field also, Pakistan has contributed to the growth and popularity of hockey in the world. Pakistan's proposal to institute a World Cup for Hockey has accepted by the International Hockey Federation, but the first tournament to be held in 1971 was postponed due to unavoidable circumstances. In recognition of Pakistan's contribution to world hockey, Pakistan has been awarded the Leuty Cup. The Cup is named after the former President of the FIH, and is awarded to the member association which contributes the most to the cause of field hockey.

One of the indications of official patronage for the promotion of hockey in Pakistan is the award of honours to prominent hockey players. At least 14 awards and medals have been given to them since 1960. In 1969, Col. M.H. Atif, who was the manager of Pakistan's victorious team to Mexico, was awarded the *Tamgha-i-Pakistan*, while two other former internationals,

Habib Ali Kiddie and Abdul Waheed, were decorated with the *Tamgha-i-Imtiaz*. Nasir Ali Bunda was awarded the Helms Award in 1960 by the Helms Athletic Foundation, USA, which is given to the year's outstanding amateur sportsman in each continent.

Pakistan has a large number of international umpires; and has also provided a number of countries with competent coaches. The Pakistan Hockey Federation is the chief governing body of the game in the country. The two major tournaments held are the National Championship and the Aga Khan Gold Cup.

Football : In popularity, football is second to none among the team games. Like in the rest of the world, in Pakistan, too, it is played with great enthusiasm and watched with great interest. Though the game is hardly a hundred years old in the Indo-Pakistan Subcontinent, it has always claimed a mass following. Among the players who won wide fame on the football fields of Undivided India are Samad, Moulvi Abdul Hamid, Bachi Khan, Sheedo, Ginger, Rashid Sr., Faiz Mohammad, Jumma Khan, Usman and several others.

Except for the fact that football is so universally popular and so fiercely competitive, it remains an enigma as to why Pakistan has not so far been able to figure prominently on the international scene. The Quaid-i-Azam himself became the first Patron-in-Chief of the Pakistan Football tournament are held every year.

Recently football in Pakistan has shown some signs of maturity. New techniques are being adopted. Pakistan teams are now employing the modern formations of 4-2-4 and 5-2-3. Foreign coaches have been acquired from time to time, while local internationals have also been training youngsters.

Pakistan has visited a number of neighbouring countries and participated in the Asian Quadrangular and the Asian Games. Teams from Pakistan have visited China and the Soviet Union, who have also paid return visits.

In recent years Pakistan has also been competing in the RCD Tournaments. In the first tournament held at Tehran in 1965, Pakistan lost to both Iran (1-4) and Turkey (1-3). The second RCD contest provided no better result for Pakistan. Playing the host to Iran and Turkey in 1967 at Dacca, Pakistan again lost both the games. While Iran beat Pakistan 2-0, Turkey trounced Pakistan 7-4. The third contest at Ankara in 1969 also found Pakistan at the bottom of the ladder.

In the International Football Cup Tournament held at Tehran in March 1969, Pakistan finished fourth in the five-nation contest. Spartak Club from the Soviet Union won the championship. Iran was second, and the RCD Champions, Turkey, finished third. Pakistan defeated Iraq to win the fourth position. Pakistan lost to Turkey 1-4 and to Spartak by 0-5.

In 1970, too, Pakistan's showing in international football was far below expectations. Participating in the Third RCD Football Championship, Pakistan was trounced 7-0 by Iran. The national team put up a better

show against Turkey, who nevertheless asserted their superiority by winning 3-1

Consequent on the poor performance in Tehran, the national team's tour of the Soviet Union was cancelled. Earlier, their visit to Tehran to compete in the Friendship Football Tournament was also cancelled. And so was the proposed tour of Iran by a youth team in July.

Perhaps the only silver lining in the dark horizon of Pakistan's football was the victory of the East Pakistan Sports Federation at the Invitation Tournament held in Nepal to celebrate the fiftieth birthday of King Mahendra. Starting off with a 3-goal victory over Nepal's well-known Mahabir XI, in which Maula Bux scored a hat-trick, Pakistan won the final against India's Border Security Force.

Another interesting event was the Agha Khan Gold Cup Tournament at Dacca, in which teams from Iran, Indonesia, Nepal and Ceylon also participated. It was after 10 years that the final of this blue ribband of Pakistan's football was contested by two foreign teams, Iran's Berg Club and Indonesia's Surabaya Association. Unfortunately, the match had to be abandoned shortly before the end because of a fight between some members of the two teams. A jury of the tournament awarded the match to the Iranian team, which was leading 2-1.

Pakistan has not yet been able to qualify for the Olympic football tournament. Further efforts are now being made to bring new vigour and better technique to the national team. The Pakistan Football Federation has arranged to invite foreign coaches to hold training seminars. Simultaneously efforts are being made to provide more national and international competition to improve the standard of football in the country.

Tennis: Since the retirement of Iftikhar Ahmad in the early sixties, Pakistani players have failed to win against foreign competition. So complete was the dominance of even an ageing Iftikhar that none of the youngsters, not even those in the prime of their career, could pose a serious challenge to his authority.

Of course, the young tennis players—among them notably the Rahim brothers, Zulfiqar and Haroon recorded successes in some minor tournaments abroad. Some of them have put up brave fights against recognized international stars. It has been a long time since Pakistan negotiated even the preliminary round in the Davis Cup.

At the time of Partition only three active tennis players who had made a name in undivided India came to the lot of Pakistan. They were Iftikhar Ahmad, Irshad Ahmad and Saeed Hye. Of them, Irshad, too, had retired from competitive tennis. In the early stages, Iftikhar Ahmad kept the flag flying.

One of the main reasons for the lack of progress in tennis has been the comparatively restricted participation in the game. Not all the colleges and universities have full facilities for playing tennis. The All-Pakistan Lawn Tennis Federation has at various stages undertaken coaching schemes, and sent young players abroad to gain experience and develop a match temperament.

Foreign players have also been invited to play in Pakistan. The absence of a strong base of tennis players at home, has, however, retarded the growth of tennis in Pakistan.

The National Championship was held in 1970 after a lapse of more than three years, and this year saw the emergence of Munawwar Iqbal as the new champion, who defeated Arif Elahi in just about 20 minutes. After the Championship, it was decided to compete in the Davis Cup in which Pakistan had last appeared five years back.

Haroon Rahim, Pakistan's top-notch player, who was studying in the United States was invited to join the four-man team. Iftikhar Ahmad was appointed the non-playing captain. In their tie against India, Pakistan were beaten 1-3 at Patna ; but not before the young Pakistani players had shaken their more experienced Indian opponents.

The margin of the Indian victory gives no indication of the tough fight that the Pakistanis put up. Pakistan was unlucky to have conceded a match to India when a heat-stroke put Haroon Rahim out of action. Munawwar Iqbal beat his counterpart convincingly; and Arif Elahi, too, seemed in sight of victory when the match was left drawn on the final day.

In Haroon Rahim and Munawwar Iqbal, Pakistan has found a nucleus with which it could build up a team of international quality, as both these players have given fine displays in tournaments abroad, and the standard of tennis at home also appears to be improving.

Table Tennis : Table Tennis was properly organized only in 1951. That, however, does not mean that the game was not played until then. In fact, various regional associations did exist, and competitions were held almost regularly, but the absence of a co-ordinating body restricted the tournaments generally to their respective regions. No wonder then that the level of competition was not of a high standard. Besides this, prop playing facilities were also not available.

With the formation of the All-Pakistan Table Tennis Federation in 1951, the promotion of table tennis on a national scale started. Now about 11 associations are affiliated with the PTTF—the Karachi, Lahore and Peshawar Associations being among the oldest. National Championships are held regularly while local tournaments provide added competition.

The standard of table tennis in Pakistan has never been high enough to enable it to figure prominently in international contests. Even so, the PTTF has sent some teams to compete in World and Asian Championships. In addition to this, Pakistan invited a number of foreign table tennis stars to play matches in the country. Since then, interest in the game is gradually increasing. In 1969 Pakistan participated in the Swaythling Cup at Munich, and ended up at the bottom of the ladder. Out of 46 competing nations Pakistan was placed 33rd! Previous participation in the world cup and other competitions in the Far East have shown up Pakistan's weaknesses in the game.

Pakistan did not fare any better in 1970. Once again the national team was at the bottom of the ladder in the Swaythling Cup. The manager

of the Japanese team, which visited Pakistan after winning the Corbillayn and Swaythling Cups, was of the view that Pakistan did possess talent, but that its players lacked stamina and practice. He left the local players in no doubt that they would have to work hard to make the international grade.

In the exhibition matches the Japanese team played at Rawalpindi, Islamabad and Karachi, they faced little or no opposition. The only exception, perhaps, was Sohail Karimi, who came very near snatching a game from the skilled Japanese. This was the first time that the World Champion had visited Pakistan since its independence.

Pakistan organized the first RCD Championship, and was placed second in this tournament. After crushing Turkey 5-0, Pakistan was beaten 1-5, with the national champion Mazhar Qureshi winning the only match. But Pakistan did have the satisfaction of winning the ladies section of the Championship, in which Iran was beaten 1-3. Farooq Sanjani, the reigning Iranian national champion, won the singles title, beating his compatriot Ali Raza Hejazi. Later, pairing together, the two Iranian singles finalists also annexed the doubles crown.

Horse-racing: Karachi, Lahore and Rawalpindi are the three main centres of horse-racing in Pakistan. The races at these centres are controlled by the Jockey Club of Pakistan, which is affiliated to the Jockey Club of London. Races are also held at Dacca. At Karachi they are held throughout the year, under JCP rules, and from January to the end of March at Lahore. The prize money offered has been steadily increasing; and the two richest races, the Quaid-i-Azam Gold Cup and the Pakistan Derby, are each worth Rs. 80,000 to the winning owner.

Besides these two races, other important events in the racing calendar at Karachi and Lahore include the Pakistan St. Leger, the Prince Aly Khan Gold Cup, the 2,000 guineas, the 1,000 guineas and the Queen Elizabeth Gold Cup.

Racehorses have been bred at stud farms at Sahiwal and Renala for many years, for which purpose stallions and brood mares are imported. Two of the outstanding horses bred in Pakistan, during the decade or so, are *Nero* and *Montreaux*. Both these horses have since been retired. *Nero* won the Quaid-i-Azam Gold Cup twice, while the later, known as the *Flying Filly*, has won it once. *Montreaux* also won all the other classics and semi-dassic races in which she ran. She has won many races in record time and in 24 starts, it has lost only four times.

Jockey Hasnain and trainer Aslam Poshni ended 1969 as the top professionals of the Karachi Turf. Out of a total of 236 engagements, Hasnain won 59 races during the year; and Poshni saddled 44 winners out of his 246 runners. In 1970 also, Hasnain was adjudged the Champion Jockey.

Badminton: Pakistan has no significant achievement to its credit in this game, in which the South-East Asians excel. But time and again Pakistani players have demonstrated that, given facilities and encouragement, they can give a

good account of themselves. The talents and the latent potential in the country have been commended by numerous top exponents of the game, both at home and abroad. For the record, it must, however, be stated that Pakistan has never gone beyond the preliminary stages either in the Asian Championships or the Thomas Cup. Only at the inaugural Asian Badminton Confederation Championship, held at Kuala Lumpur in May 1962, did Pakistan reach the semi-finals.

Pakistan was not represented at the First Asian Games, held at Lucknow in 1966, where Malaysia, which won the Inaugural Tournament, retained the trophy. In the second Asian Games, held at Manila in February 1969, Pakistn lost in the first round to Japan (2-3). The national team derived some satisfaction from winning the Plate Championship organized for the first round losers. They defeated Hong Kong in a marathon final.

In the individual championship that followed the team competition, Salahuddin and Naqi Mohsin won their first rounds, while team-mate Fazal Haq went down fighting in his very first engagement. In the doubles event, too, the Pakistani pair of Salahuddin and Naqi Mohsin lost in the first round. In the second round, Kojima of Japan quite outclassed Salahuddin, but Naqi Mohsin snatched the first set before losing to Tan Aik Mong of Malaysia.

Similarly, in the Asian Zone Competition of the Thomas Cup, Pakistan was swamped 0-9 by Thailand. But for Salahuddin) no other player was able to win a single game in the nine matches played at Bangkok in 1969.

Earlier in 1968, Naqi Mohsin had been invited to play in the All-England Badminton Championship, which is unofficially regarded as the World Cup in Badminton. Naqi was unlucky to have been pitted against Denmark's famed Erland Kops. A winner of the world title for more than half a dozen times, he swept Mohsin off the court, but not before the young Pakistani had scored six points in each of the two games.

On his way back, Naqi Mohsin participated in the French International Championship. He fought his way to the third round before being put out of the tournament by more skilled foreign opposition. The dearth of indoor playing facilities and defective playing gear has stood in the way of improved standards.

These handicaps continued to dog Pakistan in 1970 also. Nothing happened to improve the image of Pakistani players. Pakistan's hopes of achieving anything worth while were shattered in the very first round of the Singapore Open Badminton Championship, when the singles players were eliminated. While Ahmad was beaten by Singapore's Lee Ab Ngo 11-15, 15-12, 9-15; Salahuddin, a Thomas Cup player, was defeated by an unseeded Indonesian, Nurman, in two straight sets.

Squash : Only a little before Partition this fast and existing game was mostly confined to the cantonment limits. Yet in no other game has Pakistan held such complete sway over the world's top honours for as long a period in Squash. The man who made Pakistan known and respected in the Squash

world was Hashim Khan. For a man nearing his forties, his feats were even more remarkable.

Hashim Khan ended the long reign of the UAR stalwarts. After his epic win on March 12, 1951, at Lansdowne Club, he wore the British professional crown for six consecutive years with rare assurance—longer than any other individual so far. His dazzling speed and geometrical precision swept the redoubtable Mahmood Karim off his feet. And Karim was no ordinary opponent. His skill has been compared to that of his compatriot, F.D. Amer Bey of the UAR, who was considered a legendary figure in Squash. Even so, before the sparkling genius of Hashim Khan, they looked like pale images.

Hashim was dethroned in 1957, but by no other than his own cousin, Roshan Khan, whose artistry and craftsmanship has become a byword in Squash. The next year Hashim fought back fiercely to regain the title. But that was the last time that Hashim won the world honour. His mantle was then passed on to his brother, Azam Khan, who retained the world crown till 1961. The following year his nephew, Mohibullah, achieved a double event by taking the British professional as well as open titles.

For 11 long years, the finals of the world championships were always contested between the great Khans. During this undisputed reign of the Khan family, a non-Pakistani considered it an honour to reach even the semi-final stage.

Not content to dominate British Squash, the Khans extended their ascendancy to America as well, where the game is played with different rules. After two unsuccessful assaults on the American title, Hashim annexed this elusive honour also. At this time he had turned 50, and his opponent was his own nephew, Mohibullah, just about half his age !

The golden period of Pakistani Squash ended in 1963. In fact Pakistan's meteoric rise in world Squash was exclusively due to the Khan family. Since they bowed out of the Squash courts, no Pakistani has yet been able to reach the finals in the open championships.

By pure coincidence, the very year that the supremacy of Pakistan ended in the professional event, Aftab Jawaid, another of the great Khan clan, kept the country's flag flying by winning the amateur title, which he kept for three consecutive years. Since Jawaid's defeat, Pakistan has not yet been able to find a suitable contender for any of the world titles, though there is a hopeful number of promising talents.

While Pakistan's supremacy in Squash has presently come to a stop, it is still a force to be contended with. In the World Team Championship of 1969, Pakistan finished third behind Australia and England. In the USA, Farooq Mir, a Pakistani student at Connecticut, won the 1969 US National Junior Squash Championship for the second successive year, beating Gordon Anderson of Toronto at Concord, New Hampshire.

Both Aftab and Yasin were eliminated in the semi-finals of the British Open Squash Tournament at Birmingham in 1969. Yasin reached the semi-final by defeating the former champion and the third seed, Abu Taleb of UAR. He was too quick for Taleb in what *The Times* described

as an "enchanting match that delightfully blended speed and subtlety."

Yasin lost to Jonah Barrington, who had won the championship in 1966 and 1967. Jawaid defeated Mike Corby, but was beaten in the semi-finals by Geoff Hunt in "one of the finest matches". This was Jawaid's better showing against Hunt, who later, at Lansdowne, beat Jawaid by three straight games in the British Amateur Championship.

Jonah Barrington was specially invited to Pakistan in early 1970 to participate in the XIth National Squash Championship held at Islamabad. Barrington won the title, defeating Aftab Jawaid.

Barrington maintained his winning sequence against Aftab in the British Open Squash Championship. Aftab had crashed into the finals beating fellow Pakistani M. Yasin. So complete was Aftab's mastery that this took him only 20 minutes, and he dropped only one point in three games. In the other semi-final, Barrington defeated another Pakistani, Sharif Khan, son of the famous Squash wizard Hashim Khan. Sharif could go only as far as snatching a game from the World Champion. In the finals, Barrington proved too good for Aftab to win the Championship.

But Pakistan did have the satisfaction of winning the British Amateur Championship after a lapse of four years. And for this feat, credit goes to Alauddin. Aftab was beaten in the third round by Australia's Billy Reedman, who, however, proved no match for Alauddin. Reedman was beaten in three straight sets 3-9, 0-9, 5-9. In the semi-final, Alauddin had beaten his countryman, Hidayat Jan, who had, in turn, created quite a sensation by defeating the British Ace, Philip Ayton.

At home, Pakistan entertained Barrington, UAR's Abu Talib and Rattinoc, who, along with Pakistan's Aftab Jawaid and Sharif Khan, formed a touring circus. These top-notchers played exhibition matches in both East and West Pakistan to popularize the game.

Athletics : The early promise Pakistan showed in athletics has not been fulfilled. No Pakistani has won a medal in any of the five Olympics in which the country has participated since 1948. What is even worse, during the last decade, Pakistani athletes have not been able to keep pace with the tremendous improvement in track and field events elsewhere. In the XVth National Olympics held at Karachi, in February 1970, only one national record was bettered. Tajul Mulk cleared the bar at 6 feet 4 inches in the high jump.

Unfortunately, on the present performance of its athletes, Pakistan is not even near the Asian mark. And yet in the not-too-distant past Pakistan was rated as a top-class contender in the Asian Games. It even excelled in the Commonwealth Games and in dual meets with European teams.

In 1954, Pakistan won eight medals at the Second Asian Games at Manila. Pakistan did even better in the 1958 Tokyo Games by collecting a bag of 13 medals, including five gold, four silver and four bronze medals. But four years later Pakistan could muster only seven medals at the Djakarta Asian Games. The performance in 1966 was even worse.

And yet, only 10 years before that, Pakistan had secured the highest

point-score among Asian nations at the Melbourne Olympics. Because of their fine performance, seven Pakistani athletes were included in the British Empire and Commonwealth team to meet the all-conquering American athletic team at Sydney towards the end of the 1956 Olympics.

Ghulam Raziq, the plucky 110-metre hurdler, and Mohammad Iqbal, the hefty hammer thrower, have both won Commonwealth titles. Along with Abdul Khaliq, who was known as the fastest runner in Asia, they still remain the most admired of Pakistan's athletes.

One remembered them almost with nostalgia at both the Commonwealth Games at Edinburgh and the Asian Games at Bangkok in 1970. After their dismal showing at Edinburgh, the Pakistanis were able to win only two bronze and a silver medal at Bangkok.

Norman Brinkworth won a bronze for Pakistan in the 400-metre hurdle, while the othere bronze was won by Yusuf in the hammer throw. Mohammad Yunus, who had been expected to win a gold medal in the 1500-metre race, had to be content with a silver medal. Running in the front in the last lap, Yunus was overhauled and outpaced by Japan's Noro Sumuri, who, from all accounts, ran a great race for the last 200 metres.

Boxing : Professionalism in boxing is unknown in Pakistan. It is a purely amateur sport, with a brief history. Boxing is a tough sport and requires long years of training. It develops an excellent physique, teaches self-defence, increases self-confidence and builds up endurance.

Though Pakistan has so far failed to produce a world-class boxer in any weight, it has won a number of medals at Asian Games. Pakistani boxers have also performed well against other Asian opposition. In the first Asian boxing competition, Pakistan won three gold and four bronze medals, while in the third competition, at Colombo, Pakistan won one gold, three silver and four bronze medals.

Realizing that Pakistani boxers badly need competitive experience and training facilities, national boxing contests are now organized periodically; and training camps have been set up from time to time. In the XVth National Boxing Championship, held at the Army Stadium, Rawalpindi, in March 1969, no less than 72 boxers participated. The standard of refereeing and judging has also improved.

Pakistan won three out of eleven gold medals at the Asian Amateur Boxing Championship at Manila in April 1970. A silver medal and five bronze medals completed the tally of medal-winning. In addition, for the first time, a Pakistani boxer, Samad Mir (bantamweight), was declared the best and the most scientific pugilist of Asia from among 67 contestants from 13 Asian nations.

The Pakistani team, coming second after Korea, was given a standing ovation at the conclusion of the Championship. Japan finished third. Among the gold medal winners were Samad Mir (bantom), Arif Malik (middle) and Pir Badshah (h.avy). Sowar Shah won a silver medal in the light-weight contest, while Kambrani Wahid Mir, Khaliq and Malang won a bronze medal each.

After having done so well in Manila, a five-man team went to the

Commonwealth Games at Edinburgh. Four of these boxers were pitched against those from Ghana. But for Sàmad Mir, none of the boxers reached the semi-final stage; and even Samad had to concede a walk-over because of an injury to his hand.

In the Sixth Asian Games, too, Pakistan fared badly, and the national squad was able to bring back only one silver and three bronze medals. Fresh efforts are know afoot to regain Pakistan's position in international boxing.

Wrestling : Pakistan inherited rich wrestling traditions, but they were confined to professional wrestling. Like Squash, the supremacy in this sport is also linked to one family, that of the great and illustrious Gama. Without any doubt the legendary Gama and his brother Imam Bux were great wrestlers in their time.

The five sons of Imam Bux—Bholu, Aslam, Akram, Azam and Goga—have kept up the family tradition. Bholu lays claim to being the undefeated world champion, but he has not wrestled in public for many years. He is ready to meet anyone in the world, provided the prospective challenger defeat his four brothers first. No one has so far undertaken to fulfil this condition.

In amateur wrestling, Pakistan has won 24 gold, 24 silver and 23 bronze medals at Asian, Commonwealth and Olympic Games. The manly sport of wrestling has been on the Olympic schedule since the Athens Olympics of 1896. It was previously conducted only in the Graeco-Roman style, With the passage of time, the catch-as-catch-can style has also been recognized, and Olympic wrestling competitions are now held in eight different weight categories for each style.

At Mexico, Pakistan was unable to secure a single medal. Sardar Mohammad was rated low in the bantamweight, because the referee reversed his earlier decision at the instance of the Mat Chairman. Like Taj Mohammad, he too was unlucky to draw a tough and difficult round.

At the Commonwealth Games, Pakistan won 4 gold, 2 silver and 2 bronze medals. This performance at Edinburgh was even better than the one at the previous Games held in Jamaica, when Pakistan cornered 4 gold, 1 silver and 1 bronze medal.

Had Mohammad Bashir, who won the gold medal at the previous three games, not been injured and withdrawn from the contest in the second round, Pakistan could have expected to do even better. On the other hand, at the Asian Games at Bangkok, Pakistan did not figure at all. For the first time none of the Pakistani wrestlers were among the gold medal winners.

Obviously, Pakistani wrestlers need more competition to improve their standard. This can be done only by inviting foreign teams and participating in world contests, which are held regularly every year. The sport also needs to be popularized on a nation-wide basis. At present, most of the top amateur and professional wrestlers hail from the Panjab.

Weight-lifting : This is one of the most strenuous of the sports, the strongman's sport. It has not yet become a spectator sport in Pakistan, and the number

of participants is also relatively small. Weight-lifting requires a high degree of strength and physical fitness. It calls for a disciplined combination of body co-ordination and muscle power. Considerable fortitude and concentration is needed for the hard training this requires.

Gradually, the sport is gaining popularity and spreading to educational institutions. Concomitantly, standards are improving too. In the XVth National Olympics, in February 1970, seven new records were created in different weight-lifting events.

The international popularity of weight-lifting is indicated by the fact that about 95 countries are affiliated to the International Weight-lifting Federation, and the World Championship is staged every year. But Pakistan has yet to achieve any distinction in foreign competitions.

The nearest that Pakistan has come to reaching international standards was at the Commonwealth Games in Edinburgh, where Abdul Ghafoor made a desperate bid to win in the flyweight class. Ghafoor, who was placed second, was beaten by a 20-year-old Sydney student, George Vasil, in a fierce duel.

Volleyball : Besides hockey, volleyball is the only other team game in which Pakistan has ever won a medal. Now popular even at the village level. because of its being inexpensive, volleyball was introduced in the Indo-Pakistan Subcontinent during the First World War.

At the dawn of Independence, Pakistan had a number of good volleyball players, with an all-India reputation. These top-notchers gradually withered away because of the lack of any organization at the initial stages. Serious efforts to organize the game at the national level commenced only after the formation of the Pakistan Volleyball Association in 1956.

The formation of the Federation gave a new lease of life to volleyball. In 1958, Pakistan undertook its first official tour abroad, with a visit to neighbouring Iran. Of the three matches played there, Pakistan won all, including a solitary Test match.

In 1961, the Morgan International Volleyball Tournament was organized at Karachi. Two of the top-most Asian teams, from Japan and Indonesia, participated in the first-ever international competition in Pakistan. The home team defeated both the challengers to keep the Morgan Trophy.

The next year Pakistan competed in the Asian Volleyball at Djakarta, but was beaten back to third position behind Japan and India. The bronze medal won at the Djakarta Asian Games happens to be the only medal won by it so far.

In the Second World Military Championship, held at Karachi in December 1962, Pakistan secured third position, while France and Holland won the first and second prizes. The fourth, fifth and sixth positions went in Belgium, USA and Iraq.

Pakistan fared even worse in the Pre-Olympic Group Championship held at Delhi in 1964. In a seven-nation competition, Pakistan was placed sixth. In 1966, Pakistan participated in the Fourth World Military Volleyball Championship at Ankara, and lost even the third position won earlier

in the competition at Karachi.

The same year Pakistan was displaced from the Asiam ranking as well. Participating in the Asian Games for the second time at Bangkok, the Pakistani volleyball team could not even clear the qualifying round. Recently some flood-lit courts have sprung up and new techniques are being practised by the leading Volleyball teams of the country. But by the end of 1970, Pakistan had failed to make any impression in the game.

Basketball : The game is mostly restricted to educational institutions in big cities, the YMCAs, the Services, Police and the Railways; but popular interest in basketball is gradually increasing. Unfortunately, the same cannot be said about the standard of play. Lack of facilities and the absence of early training have kept Pakistani Basketball from achieving a satisfactory standard.

Pakistan regularly participated in the Quadrangular Meets from 1962 to 1964. In the first Meet, hosted by Pakistan, the home team secured third position, behind Iran and India. With India absenting itself from the Second Quadrangular at Tehran, Pakistan moved up to the second position, but in the Third Meet at Colombo, Pakistan was once again relegated to the third position behind Iran and India.

American teams have visited Pakistan in 1964 and 1965. Neither team experienced any serious resistance from Pakistan. Participation in the Afro-Asian Games at Djakarta and the RCD Basketball Championship has been a mere formality, and Pakistan has failed to make any mark.

In the Asian Basketball Championship held at Bangkok in 1969, Pakistan secured seventh position. Of the eight nations participating in the Championship, South Korea was placed first, followed by Japan and the Philippines.

The Pakistan Army sent out its team to participate in the International Army Basketball Championship (CISM) at Tehran. Although, the team was placed at the bottom of the Round Robin League, there was some satisfaction in the fact that Pakistan's Rasheed Ali secured third position among the scorers, with 114 points to his credit.

Swimming : In spite of the efforts made from the very beginning, swimming has yet to become a serious competitive sport in Pakistan. The performances of Pakistani swimmers have been extremely poor. Having competed in all the Olympics, Commonwealth and Asian Games, Pakistan has yet to win a single medal.

But for the long-distance swimmers from East Pakistan, no mention of Pakistan would have been made in connection with swimming. And yet swimming is a serious sport throughout the world. It formed one of the original sports on the programme of the Athens Olympic Games in 1896.

Brojen Das blazed the trail for long-distance swimming in Pakistan. He was the first Asian to have crossed the choppy English Channel in September, 1958. By making two more crossings the same year he became the first man to have swum across the channel thrice within a year. Later, in

1961, Brojen became the fastest human to have crossed the Channel from France to England. He bettered the previous record by 15 minutes. The previous record created by Hasan Abdul Rahim of the UAR in 1950 had withstood the challenge for 11 years.

After Brojen came Abdul Malik. He finished fourth in the Capri-Naples international swimming race for amateurs in July 1963. Two months later he made an abortive attempt to cross the Channel. Finally, in his third attempt, he became the second Pakistani to perform the difficult feat.

Such acquatic sports as sailing, yachting, rowing and fishing are confined to small groups, with the exception of traditional long-boat rowing which is a popular sport in East Pakistan.

Golf : Golf, mainly a sport of the well-to-do in Pakistan, was revived in 1958. The Pakistan Golf Union came into existence in 1960. Karachi, Dacca, Rawalpindi and Lahore Gymkhanas and the PWR are the PGU's founder members.

Since then, Pakistan has participated in a number of international contests. Though Pakistani golfers have not achieved any spectacular victories, the increasing interest in the game has been constantly throwing up new talented youngsters.

Murtaza Qasim of Karachi won the championship in December 1969, by defeating Taimur Hasan in the absence of the holder, Hashim Khan. The national contests, played over 72 holes and with a par of 72, lasted three days. The game has also caught the fancy of women players, among whom Ghazala Ansari, Yasmeen Waheed and Nuzhat Subhan figure prominently.

Mahmood Hussain of Pakistan Western Railways retained the Fourth Open Golf Championship in 1970, with a record gross score of 291 over 72 holes. The amateur trophy was won by Taimur Hasan. He defeated Ceylon's leading golf player, Pin Fernando, with an aggregate test score of 306 over 72 holes.

A four-man golf team participated in the Eisenhower Trophy at Madrid and finished 34th among 36 participants.

Polo : One of the oldest games of the world, Polo has long been played in various forms in the Indo-Pakistan Subcontinent. When the institution of the National Horse and Cattle Show, held annually at Lahore, included Polo in its 1952 programme, it brought new encouragement to the game in Pakistan

Since then polo is a regular feature of the annual Show, and a number of competitions are organized throughout the year at various centres of the country.

Pakistan's polo players have visited foreign lands, and have entertained foreign teams at home. In 1969, an American team succeeded in beating Pakistan narrowly by 5½ goals to 5, and later went on to win the National Open Polo Championship by 7½ goals to 6.

In 1970, Pakistan entertained the Hurlingham Rovers, a team from Great Britain. Pakistan won the first two games and lost the third and last

match. And when a nine-man polo team from Pakistan went on a week-long tour to Abu Dhabi, this became the first time that a polo match was staged in the Gulf area.

Doll-making is an old craft that is today taking on some new styles.



Tourism

EACH REGION of the country offers the visitor to Pakistan a colourful variety of attractions; and a warm welcome and convenient tourist facilities await him in every part of the country. Suiting his requirements, the visitor may choose anything from sumptuous luxury to homely comfort—but always he is assured a memorable time at magnificent tourist sites (see section at the end of this chapter).

Bearing testimony to this and the success of continuous efforts to promote tourism, the number of visitors coming to Pakistan has increased rapidly over the years. As against less than 28,000 in 1959/60, the number of tourists during 1969/70 rose to more than 122,000. This represents a substantially larger increase for tourist arrivals than the average for the world as a whole—specifically 336 per cent against the world average of about 260 per cent.

In 1965, the Department of Tourism produced a Master Plan for the ensuing 20 years. The Plan envisaged a growth that would yield Rs. 130 million in foreign exchange in 1970 and Rs. 560 million in 1985. The Plan emphasized the following tourist developments: providing rest houses and improved transportation and recreation facilities, mainly in the Chittagong Hill Tracts, the Sunderbans, Gilgit, Hunza and Chitral; developing mountaineering, winter-sports, fishing, hunting and sight-seeing tours, as well as important places of historical, archaeological and other interest; training facilities for hotel staff and tourist promotion work; publicity campaigns organized in collaboration with international travel and tourist organizations; and support for the development of hotels by the private sector. This Plan also recommended the establishment a Pakistan Tourism Development

Corporation (PTDC) to take up large-scale ventures and enterprises in the private sector, which has since been set up in April 1970 with an enlarged area of responsibilities and functions (see below).

Fourth Plan Recommendations: Looking upon tourism as a potentially powerful industry whose rapid and efficient development depends on effective co-ordination between various agencies in the public and private sectors directly or indirectly concerned with tourist facilities, the Fourth Plan gives new importance to this industry and proposes a multilateral approach for its development. In addition to the PTDC in the private sector, the Plan thus recommends the creation of a Central Ministry of Tourism as a co-ordinating agency supported by the Department of Tourism in the public sector and the Tourism Corporation in the private sector. The Plan emphasizes that "as tourism encompasses all the natural gifts which the country possesses, such as historical and archaeological sites, mountain areas, sea beaches, flora and fauna, cultural heritage, food, souvenirs etc., the policy-making machinery responsible for tourism should be appropriately placed in the hierarchy of the Government for effective planning, co-ordination and implementation of projects connected with the development and promotion of tourism". In framing policy on the development of tourism, opinions and suggestions from the private sector are to be sought not only from the Tourism Corporation, but also from hoteliers, travel agents, tour operators, financing institutions, etc. "It is, therefore, necessary", the Plan observes, "that a National Tourism Council should be set up with powers to make decisions on policy issues as well as on issues involving co-ordination among various Central Ministries and the Provincial Governments. The National Tourism Council should comprise the Secretaries of various Ministries and Divisions of the Central Government as well as the Chief Secretaries of the Provincial Governments. The Minister of Tourism should be the Chairman of the Advisory Council . . . " In order to promote the development of tourist sites involving various Provincial Departments, Provincial Tourist Advisory Committees have already been set up in East and West Pakistan. These Committees are charged with the responsibility of giving administrative assistance to the Department of Tourism in respect of the implementation of development schemes undertaken by the Department, and also of co-ordinating work involved in this by such autonomous bodies functioning under the administrative control of the Province as Improvement Trusts, Municipalities, Road Transport Corporations. But the Plan suggests that to further co-ordinate and strengthen tourist development at the Provincial level, and for domestic as well as international tourism, "a separate sub-sector of tourism should be created in the Provincial Governments . . . every Province should have its own cell dealing with tourism which should be responsible for the development of tourism in the Province and also co-ordinate closely with the Department of Tourism in the Centre."

To stimulate the private sector to make continuing and purposeful investments in the development of tourism, the Plan recommends providing the kind of incentives that have been introduced for the promotion of manu-

facturing industries; including the tourist industry in the Investment and Industrial Schedule; and offering it tax holidays, loan facilities, bonus entitlements, etc.

Finally, the Plan stresses that "In order to encourage foreign tourists to visit Pakistan, the most urgent steps to be taken are the elimination of red-tape for entry and exit and the provision of favourable rates of currency exchange. The prevailing rate of currency exchange is most unreasonable, which either discourages the foreign tourist from visiting Pakistan or results in malpractices. It is, therefore, recommended that the Government should immediately introduce a special Tourist Rate of Exchange. . ."

Financial provision made by the Plan in the public sector at the Centre is very modest at Rs. 15 million, but this is to be supplemented by the above-mentioned Provincial efforts in various sectors of the economy influencing the tourist attraction of a place, as well as by the allocation of Rs. 600 million in the private sector, of which Rs. 200 million is to be spent in East Pakistan and Rs. 400 million in West Pakistan. The private sector allocation is based on the fact that in the Third Plan period this sector did actually spend well over Rs. 250 million on investments in developments directly related to tourism, and particularly in hotel and motel construction.

Tourism Development Corporation: In line with the Fourth Plan proposals, one of the first steps the Corporation took, after its establishment in April 1970, was to urge the introduction of a realistic Tourist Rate of Exchange, which the Government in fact did in July 1970. In the six months following this, according to the State Bank, Foreign Exchange Receipts from tourists soared to Rs. 22.4 million within six months as against Rs. 20.2 million for the entire year of 1969/70. The State Bank also estimates that tourist Foreign Exchange Receipts for 1970/71 would reach Rs. 50 million, representing an increase of 150 per cent over the corresponding figure for 1969/70.

Secondly, the PTDC formulated specific proposals for the grant of liberal incentives and concessions to attract foreign as well as internal private investment in tourism, and in January 1971 the Government announced that these proposals had been accepted. The Corporation feels that with the issue of the necessary notifications on these concessions, the major bottleneck in the development of tourism has been removed, "and the vast investment potential of the country's tourist industry will begin to receive the attention of investors and financiers from all over the world". To promote this objective and project Pakistan's new tourist image, the Corporation, among other publicity measures, sent a delegation led by its Managing Director, Air Vice-Marshal S.A. Yusuf, to the World Congress of the American Society of Travel Agents at Amsterdam in November 1970, and followed this up by taking the initiative to convene an Area Promotion Conference at Karachi in February 1971. This was attended by representatives of tourism from Afghanistan and Turkey and leading travel agents and promoters from the United States. Several concrete possibilities of collectively promoting tourism in the region were agreed at the Conference, and these have since

also been passed on to other countries of the region, including Iran, Nepal, Ceylon and Thailand, who were invited to attend the next Area Promotion Conference at Kabul in May 1971. RCD collaboration in tourism has been followed up at the RCD Ministerial Meeting at Dacca in January 1971 and at a special meeting under the auspices of the RCD Secretariat at Ankara towards the end of April in the same year, where detailed proposals for a joint tourism film and brochure for the RCD countries was considered.

While other new national publicity and tourist information material was in preparation for world-wide distribution in the near future, in February 1971 the Corporation brought out the first issue of its quarterly magazine *Focus on Pakistan*, which has been well received by travel and tourist organizations abroad.

Taking over a number of tourist facilities and functions from the Department of Tourism, which itself was a task that was not completed until late in 1970, the Corporation then gave its first attention to improving tourist accommodation and transportation facilities, streamlining facilities for bookings and reservations, easing customs formalities, and obtaining relaxations of various outdated Governmental restrictions on tourists. This has been accompanied by improvements in the standards and efficiency of tourist staff and facilities, including the provision of a tour operation and travel agency service through a subsidiary of the Corporation, Pakistan Tours Ltd. (PTL), which now has offices in all major cities and tourist centres in both wings of the country. Arranging accommodation and operating the Corporation's fleet of tourist transport, PTL also organizes and promotes group and individual tours to Pakistan from countries which are a major source of visitors to Pakistan. Since its establishment in November 1970, Tours Ltd. has handled advance bookings and tourist groups from Australia, Austria, France, Japan, the United Kingdom, the United States and some other countries. On these arrangements, Tours Ltd. anticipates grossing over $ 100,000 in 1971. As the trend in world travel is towards all-inclusive group tours, PTL is concentrating on these; and as such tours, in turn, imply promptly arranged block accommodation along national and regional tourist routes, the Corporation is supporting PTL by arranging a long-term lease with the Associated Hotels of Pakistan, and maintaining close co-operation with PIA Hotels Ltd., which are managed by Pakistan Services Ltd. (PSL), and which itself is engaged in implementing a programme of setting up hotels and motels in various parts of the country where existent accommodation is inadequate. The Corporation as such, while carrying out surveys and studies for the finalization of its long-term programme, is engaged in the following short-term programmes to promote tourism :

(i) The improvement and development of accommodation facilities at Naran, Gilgit, Abbottabad, and Swat in the northern mountainous region of Pakistan.

(ii) The development of : Sonmiani Beach, about 25 miles from Karachi ; the tourist complex of motels and rest houses at Kaptai and Rangamati in East Pakistan; the 75-mile-long beach at Cox's Bazar, also in East Pakistan; camping sites at Lahore and Peshawar in West Pakistan;

tourist transport facilities with air-conditioned, luxury coaches.

(iii) The operation of a *son et lumiere* programme in Jehangir's Quadrangle at the Lahore Fort, which was started in March 1971 at a cost of Rs. 2.5 million. Called 'Cycle of Day and Night', this light and sound performance gives an imaginative portrayal of the chequered history of Lahore, recapturing its climaxes with dramatic intensity.

(iv) The opening of PTDC Tourist Information Offices abroad.

(v) The establishment of Pakistan Houses in capitals and other major cities of Europe, Japan and the United States, which are ultimately to operate as self-financing commercial propositions as well as centres for the projection of Pakistan in these countries.

Finally, basing itself on tourist wings and information centres organized by the Department of Tourism in the past, the Corporation is now running Tourist Information Centres at Karachi, Lahore, Rawalpindi, Gilgit, Peshawar, Quetta, Swat and Abbottabad in West Pakistan, and Dacca, Chittagong, Cox's Bazar, Rajshahi, Sylhet, Kaptai and Rangamati in East Pakistan. These Centres, together with their branches at hotels, airports and other entry points, offer their assistance and services to domestic as well as foreign tourists.

For long-term tourism development, the Corporation has initiated a comprehensive market survey to be carried out by an international firm of consultants. This survey is expected to assess Pakistan's current and future tourist potential, analyse and forecast world travel trends with its implications for Pakistan, and indicate the lines along which Pakistan should develop its tourist industry for the next 20 years. I addition, it will also make recommendations on how publicity for the country should be carried out abroad to attract tourists. Finances for these long-term tourist developments are to be gathered from the private sector at home and abroad, from where some major financiers have already indicated significant interest.

Domestic Tourism : It is a well-established fact that to promote foreign tourism in a country, one must also stimulate the spirit of travel and tourism among the people of the country. This is all the more important as the demand for tourist installations and the development of tourist areas depends to a very large extent on the degree of demand from domestic tourists. Once this demand begins to grow, the private sector naturally gets interested in making sizable investments in tourist installations—on which quick returns are quite evident—and these can then also serve the promotion of foreign tourism. The current promotion of domestic tourism includes, apart from stepped up publicity and other measures, the organization of 'package' tours for youths and student groups, conducted sight-seeing tours for domestic tourists, improvement of youth hostels, provision of rest house and hotel accommodation at tourist resorts.

Development Projects: Major development projects on which work has proceeded according to plan in 1968/69 include the following :

Malam Jubba Ski Resort : A schedule for the completion of various aspects of the project has been drawn up ; and in November 1968 a high-level team of experts from Austria carried out an on-the-spot survey of a progress made and presented its report, which includes an assessment of requirements of aid and loans from Austria. A 26-mile link road leading to the 8,500-foot-high site has been completed at a cost of Rs. 1.25 million. Construction of a 50-room hotel is to be started as soon as an agreement with the Government of Austria has been signed.

Son et Lumiere at the Lahore Fort : This project, as indicated before, started operating in March 1971.

Tourist Complexes : As part of the scheme to establish a chain of tourist complexes at important tourist resorts and points of entry in both zones of the country, which are to include information centres, souvenir shops, snack bars and rest houses, work on seven such complexes has been taken in hand at Thatta, Banbhore, Naokhundi, Mohenjodaro, Taxila, Torkham and Rangamati. Two picnic and week-end resorts, at the Madhupur National Park and in the Kaptai Lake area in East Pakistan, are also being developed.

Hotel Training Institute : The Hotel Training Institute set up in collaboration with the Pakistan Hotels, Restaurants and Clubs Association, to meet the shortage of trained personnel in the hotel trade, graduated its first batch of 14 trainees in September 1968, and organized three special courses during December 1968 and January-May 1969.

Tourist Information Centres : Seven new Centres have been opened in 1968/69 at Thatta, Mangla, Nathiagali, Naran, Gandasinghwala, Sylhet and Rajshahi. This brings the total number of Tourist Information Centres to 28, and by 1969 the number of tourists assisted by such centres had increased seven-fold from 16,308 in 1965 to 119,617 (46,131 foreign and 73,486 domestic).

In addition, there are over 60 IATM-approved travel agencies located at different places in East and West Pakistan. Statistical data collected by the Tourism Department during January-July 1969 indicates that 17 travel agents working at Karachi, Lahore, Rawalpindi, Peshawar, Gilgit, Swat, Dacca and Chittagong conducted 2,562 tourists (1,210 foreign and 1,352 domestic) during this period.

Promotion and Publicity : Until the Tourism Development Corporation took charge of tourist publicity, the tourist projection of Pakistan had consisted of two themes : 5,000 *Years of Pakistan* and *The Modern Image of Pakistan*. While the first highlighted the archaeological, historical and cultural heritage of Pakistan, the second emphasized the modern, progressive image of Pakistan, as a country where basic tourist facilities, including—accommodation, transport and communications, handicrafts and souvenirs,

entertainment and recreation—were more than satisfactory and made it possible to visit remote and enchanting scenic spots with ease and comfort.

During 1968/69, a booklet entitled *Tourism in Retrospect, 1958-68*, and 12 folders on important cities and tourist areas were printed and distributed. In view of the shortage of good picture post-cards, the Department brought out 625,000 colour picture postcards. A documentary film entitled *The Land that We Love* was produced and exhibited on TV and on the screen, while separate documentary films were also produced on the tourist areas of Mohenjodaro, Taxila, Gilgit and Skardu, and on the general themes of *Glimpses of East Pakistan* and *Glimpses of West Pakistan*, for exhibition abroad, as well as within the country. Feature programmes, talks and interviews on tourism were produced on tele ision and radio, and advertising campaigns for the promotion of domestic tourism were carried out in the national press.

Principal Sites

Pakistan is a land of contrast and variety. Its two zones are a thousand miles apart, and both abound in monuments, hill resorts, beaches and historic cities. There are also famous archaeological sites in both East and West Pakistan. Big-game hunting, angling, deep-sea fishing, mountaineering and hiking are available in magnificent settings.

East Pakistan: Dacca, the capital of this Province, was founded in 1608 and was the residence of Mughal Viceroys of Bengal. The city comprises an area of 28 square miles and has a population of over half a million people. Dacca muslin was once world-famous and the silks and cottons made here were also much in demand.

Among the best-known historical monuments in Dacca are the Lal Bagh Fort, Bibi Pari's Tomb, Bara Katra, Hussaini Dalan, the Star Mosque, the Satgumbad Mosque and the Dhakeswari Temple. Important modern buildings include Curzon Hall, the High Court, Government House, the Agricultural Institute, the Central Secretariat, the Public Library and the Government Art Institute.

Dacca Museum contains specimens of Mughal arms, jewellery, sculpture, painting, ancient coins, manuscripts, fabrics and other objects of art. The Balda Garden is famous for the variety of its botanical collection.

Chittagong : Chittagong is a beautiful port city. As the principal seaport of the eastern zone of the country, it handles two million tons of cargo annually and is situated on the bank of the river Karnafuli, surrounded by green hills and tropical vegetation. It can be reached by rail, road or air. Some of the more important monuments in Chittagong are the Shahi Juma Mosque, Anderkilla, the Qadam Mubarak Mosque and the Shrine of Sultan Bayazid Bustami.

Kaptai : The completion of the Karnafuli hydroelectric project has brought prominence to the little village of Kaptai, 35 miles from Chittagong.

Kaptai has the largest man-made lake in the Subcontinent (265 square miles), and provides tourists with excellent facilities for cruising by motor launch or speedboat. The angler finds excellent fishing all the way from the lake to the Karnafuli, Kassalong and Maini rivers. The hunter and observer of wild life is offered a vast range, from jungle fowl to tiger.

Rangamati : Forty-five miles from Chittagong, also on the river Karnafuli, lies the town of Rangamati. It is in the District of the Chittagong Hill Tracts, where people live a natural life in bamboo huts built on raised bamboo platforms. The forests are dense and full of wild life. In winter, wild elephants are trapped in an operation known as *Khadda*, which a visitor can witness if he makes advance arrangements with the Tourist Bureau.

Cox's Bazar : Cox's Bazar, at a distance of 94 miles from Chittagong, has an excellent natural beach 75 miles long. It is inhabited by Mogh tribesmen with quaint customs and colourful dress, who manufacture cloth and a local type of cigar. There are rest houses and motels for visitors, and a hotel has been commissioned recently.

Sunderbans : In the District of Khulna are the world-famous Sunderbans—thick, evergreen forests surrounded by rivers. Wild life is the chief attraction of these forests, and they abound in Bengal tigers, pythons, crocodiles and spotted deer. The District can be reached from Dacca by rail and steamer, while the forests are accessible by river craft.

Sylhet : This is the principal tea-growing centre in East Pakistan. Over 100 tea estates are spread over an area of 78,000 acres, while orange and pine-apple grow in abundance. Wild life and duck shooting are major attractions in nearby forests.

Mahasthangarh : The site of the earliest known capital of Bengal, Mahasthangarh lies 8 miles north of the Bogra railway station. Excavations by the Archaeological Department here have uncovered relics of Buddhist, Hindu and Muslim periods.

Mainamati : Recent excavations at Mainamati have unearthed remnants of ancient Buddhist culture, complete with shrines, stupas, images, coins, pottery and utensils. The town lies 5 miles west of Comilla. Sculptured terracotta plaques decorating the basement wall of the central shrine of Salban Vihara form a striking group, providing both specimens of the popular folk art of ancient Bengal and an interesting picture of the social, cultural and religious life there more than a thousand years ago.

Paharpur : Paharpur, in the District of Rajshahi, possesses the finest Buddhist monastery south of the Himalayas, which is also among the biggest in the whole of Asia. The Buddha is said to have rested at the site once, which

makes Paharpur a place of special religious significance. The monastery is distinguished by its unique cruciform style of architecture.

West Pakistan: Karachi is the biggest and most important city in West Pakistan. Though it is no longer the country's capital, it continues to be a cosmopolitan centre where business, commerce and industry flourish. It has one of the finest natural harbours in the Indo-Pakistan Subcontinent and offers excellent fishing off the coast. A comparatively new city, with little of ancient historic interest, Karachi, nevertheless, offers the tourist a rich selection of hand-made products from all over the country, frequent exhibitions of its fine arts, the splendid collections of the National Museum, a fascinating aquarium at Clifton, and a modest but growing zoological garden.

Banbhore : An archaeological site 40 miles north-east of Karachi, Banbhore is thought by some scholars to be the ancient Daibul where the Arab general, Mohammad-bin-Qasim, landed in 711-12 A.D.

Thatta : The city is situated 63 miles north of Karachi and was the capital of the Province of Sind for nearly three centuries, under the Mughals (1475-1737). Two miles north-west of Thatta is Makli Hill, the quiet city of one million graves spread over 6 square miles. The tombs and graves offer fine specimens of architecture, stone-carving and coloured tiling. With partridge, quail, duck and snipe in abundance, shikar enthusiasts are drawn to the surroundings of Thatta, and in particular, Kalri Lake, 11 miles north of Thatta, offers facilities for shoots, as well as for angling and speed-boating.

Hyderabad: Hyderabad was the capital of Sind during the latter half of the eighteenth and the early nineteenth centuries. It is situated 126 miles north-east of Karachi and possesses some historical ruins and monuments. The construction of the Ghulam Mohammad Barrage across the river Indus was a notable engineering feat, which has helped to make the land green and fertile through a network of canals.

Sukkur : Sukkur is situated on the right bank of the Indus and lies 212 miles north-east of Hyderabad. The famous Sukkur Barrage (originally known as the Lloyd Barrage and Canals Construction) is one of the largest irrigation projects of its kind in the world. It irrigates 7 million acres of land by means of seven canals, drawing 46,617 cusecs of water and comprising 16,474-mile-long channels. One of its canals is wider and longer than either the Suez or the Panama Canal.

Mohenjodaro : The most famous archaeological site in Pakistan, Mohenjodaro, 412 miles from Karachi and 80 miles south-west of Sukkur, contains the remnants of the 5,000-year-old Indus Valley Civilization. The Great Bath, the Great .Granary, the Museum and the unique drainage system provide remarkable evidence of the progress made in one of the earlies

human civilizations known. At Harappa, near Sahiwal, is a similar site, belonging to the same civilization.

Quetta and Ziarat : Quetta is a healthy hill station with a cold winter but a pleasant summer. It is situated 4,590 feet above sea-level and has many orchards. Among modern amenities are a good hotel, a club and a beautiful golf course. *Ziarat*, which is 62 miles from Quetta, is 8,000 feet above sea-level.

Lahore : This is the capital of the Panjab as well as a major cultural centre. Over 800 miles north-east of Karachi, it is only two hours away by air. An ancient city full of gardens and historical buildings, Lahore offers wonderful examples of Indo-Muslim architecture: the Badshahi Mosque of the Emperor Aurangzeb, the Shalimar Gardens built by Shah Jahan, Jehangir's Mausoleum, and the Royal Fort of Akbar, with its amazing Hall of Mirrors. The Jinnah Gardens are among the finest parks in Asia. Lahore also holds the National Horse Show, an annual spring event which includes equestrian sports, folk-dances, music, parades and tattoos. The climate of Lahore is dry, with hot summers and cool winters.

Rawalpindi : Some 170 miles north-west of Lahore, Rawalpindi, popularly called Pindi, is rapidly developing from a small town to a city with good roads, decoratives trees, playgrounds for children and a large National Park. Good hotels and restaurants and the much-frequented Pindi Club are other attractions.

The history of Rawalpinni, which before Independence was a small, sleepy garrison town, dates back almost to antiquity. Indeed, there are scholars who feel that recent excavations in the Potwar plateau near Pindi show that a distinct culture flourished here as far back as the Stone Age. Since then until the British came from the South, whoever cherished the rich Indo-gangetic plains has fought his way through this area, and the imaginative may still hear the echo of invaders' horses in the plains and surrounding hills of Rawalpindi.

From Rawalpindi, most of the pleasant hill resorts in the area, such as Murree, Nathiagali, Ayubia, Abbottabad, Swat, and Kaghan, are easily accessible. The climate is similar to that of Lahore, being a little colder in winter, but not so warm in the summer.

Islamabad : Seven miles north-east of Rawalpindi, is the nation's new capital, Islamabad, which is being built according to plan on a site where only a few years ago slumbered the remote and peaceful village of Saidpur Now hundreds of modern buildings and stately boulevards have sprung up; and as the days pass, new structures keep rising against Islamabad's magnificent backdrop of the Morgala and Murree hills and amidst the Potwar Plateau's panoramic expanse of natural terraces, meadows and brooks.

With the making of Islamabad, which proceeds apace, world famous

names in town-planning and architecture have been associated, such as Corbusier, Doxiades, John Stone and Geo Ponti. And in all this planning, an effort has been made to blend traditional Islamic architectural characteristics with modern patterns and requirements.

Taxila: Another famous archaeological site is Taxila, 189 miles from Lahore and 20 miles from Rawalpindi on the road to Peshawar. It broadly represents one thousand years of history, divided more or less equally by the birth of Christ. It has remains of the Achaemenians, Mauryans, Indo-Greeks, Scythians, Parthians and Kushans, and is important as a centre of the Gandhara Culture. It is the place where Ashoka built the great Buddhist University of the Subcontinent some two centuries before the birth of Christ.

In the same area, within a radius of 30 miles from Rawalpindi, there are several other fascinating archaeological and historical sites, including Chauntra, Alikpur and Adiala, where paleolithic implements have been excavated; Giri with a fifth century A.D. fort; Kalawan with the Dharmajika stupa built by Ashoka; Jaulian and Manikyala with other Buddhist relics; Rewat (from *Rabat*, meaning halting, place or town) with its fortifications, six gates, a mosque and a musoleum built during the early Muslim period.

Murree and the Galis: Murree is probably the most popular summer resort in Pakistan, It is situated at an altitude of 7,527 feet above sea-level and is about 40 miles from Rawalpindi. Murree offers the visitor good hotels, skating rinks and lovely walks amidst surroundings of giant pine trees. The Galis are a chain of little hill-stations, mostly lying on a stretch of about 20 miles on the Murree-Nathiagali-Abbottabad road, easily reached by car from Murree. Ayubia, which consists of four Galis, is an hour's drive from Murree. It has beautiful wooded hills and a refreshing climate. Nathiagali is the most centrally placed, lying midway between Murree and Abbottabad at an altitude of 8,200 feet. It is also one of the most beautiful summer resorts of the country, from where, on a clear day, one may see the soaring heights of Nanga Parbat (26,700 feet). Two miles from Nathiagali, off the Murree road, on the slopes of the Mukshpuri Hill, is Dunga Gali at 7,800 feet. This Gali commands an enchanting view, and from it one may climb the 9,232-foot peak of Mukshpuri.

Kaghan Valley: The valley of Kaghan, north of Abbottabad, is 95 miles long and attains a height of 13,589 feet. In addition to a fine healthy climate, it offers the visitor memorable landscapes and enjoyable trout fishing in its winding Kunhar river.

Swat Valley: The valley of Swat, situated about 100 miles north of Peshawar, is remarkably beautiful. Like a miniature Switzerland, it is full of green valleys, snow-capped mountains, flower-covered slopes, rivers, lakes and plentiful orchards. .Udayana, the garden of the ancient Hindu epic, is a land-mark. It is said that 1,400 Buddhist monasteries existed here

centuries ago, and it was here that Alexander won major battles before coming down to the plains.

Peshawar : Peshawar, which lies 275 miles north-west of Lahore and 1,081 miles from Karachi, is a city with a rich historical background. It used to be one of the important crossroads of Central Asia, and even now its bazars recall ancient times. Peshawar is famous for its local handicrafts; and its Museum houses specimens of Gandhara sculpture and other antiquities. The nearby Kohat Pass is famous for its village gun factories.

Khyber Pass : The Khyber Pass stretches from a point 11 miles from Peshawar to the border with Afghanistan at Torkham, 24 miles further away. It was the route used by all invaders who entered the Subcontinent from the North. Persians, Greeks, Arabs, Turks, Mughals and Durranis, one by one, marched down the Pass.

Landi Kotal : About 30 miles from Peshawar, Landi Kotal is a busy shoping centre which is deservedly popular with visitors. A bus service to Torkham every Sunday provides a one-day guided tour of the Khyber Pass. It is also possible to hire a taxi for the round trip.

Gilgit : Gilgit, like Swat, is a beneficiary of nature's bounty. Mountains, valleys and glaciers abound, and calm lakes give an aura of unearthly peace. There are lofty mountain peaks over 19,000 feet high, and K-2 (Mt. Godwin-Austen), at 28,250 feet, is the highest mountain peak in the world after Mount Everest.

By air from Rawalpindi to Gilgit, the plane flies over the Kunhar river, a breathtaking spectacle. The legendary lake of Saif-ul-Muluk is among the most beautiful in the world, and there are other lovely lakes, notably the Satpara and the Kachura, in Skardu, which is also accessible by air.

Supplement

Two Basic policy statements were issued when the printing of this *Year Book*, after some unavoidable delays, was nearing completion: (i) President General Agha Mohammad Yahya Khan's Address to the Nation of June 28, 1971, outlining the national situation and his plans for the transfer of power; (ii) the Central Budget for 1971/72, which the Economic Adviser to the President, M. M. Ahmad, presented to a press conference at Islamabad on June 26, 1971. In his Budget Speech on this occasion, the Economic Adviser gave a brief review of the current economic situation before outlining his Budget and Tax Proposals for 1971/72. The texts of these two speeches are given in the following Supplement, including, in view of the special economic circumstances facing the nation, the taxation details outlined in the Budget Speech. The text of this Speech is then followed by two Tables giving the Central Budget at a glance: I (A) the *Revenue Budget* and I (B) the *Capital Budget* (Budget figures for 1970/71 will in some cases be seen to differ from the allocations made in the original Budget for this year—given in Table III of the chapter on Finance and Banking—which were revised on account of new taxation measures introduced in January 1971).

I. The President's Address to the Nation

June 28, 1971

My dear countrymen, Assalam-o-Alaikum,

The recent happenings in East Pakistan have caused anguish to all of us. For me, personally, these tragic events have been the cause of distress and disappointment. Throughout these last two and a quarter years, my aim has been to bring back democracy in the country and to ensure justice for every

region of Pakistan. In particular, I have been conscious of the legitimate demands of the East Pakistanis. Many steps have been taken and planned towards meeting them.

I have every reason to believe that my scheme to revive the democratic way of life was fully supported by the people and their political leaders in both wings of the country.

They all took part in the elections on the basis of the Legal Framework Order, 1970, which provided for maximum autonomy to the Provinces within the concept of one Pakistan and adequate strength to the Centre to carry out its functions.

The defunct Awami League also participated in the elections on the basis of the Legal Framework Order, and therefore at that time it was felt that they too subscribed to the concept of one Pakistan. However, later their leadership gradually moved away from the principles of the Legal Framework Order and based their electioneering on hatred of West Pakistan, and tried to cause tension and misunderstanding between the two wings.

When I questioned Mujibur Rahman on the Awami League Six-Points during some or our talks, he confirmed to me that these were negotiable. He also clearly indicated that all the major provisions of the Constitution would be settled by the political parties in parleys outside the Assembly. This lobbying, he affirmed, was usual practice with politicians. After the elections when I wanted the parties to get together and come to some consensus on the future Constitution of Pakistan, it became quite clear that Mujib was not going to budge from his position, which, to put it bluntly, was tantamount to secession. Another indication of his evil designs is the fact that he refused to visit West Pakistan and have talks in this wing despite repeated invitations. He had no intention of acting in a responsible and a patriotic manner as leader of the majority party in the country as a whole. He had already made up his mind that he was going to break the country into two, preferably by trickery, and if this did not succeed, by physical violence.

As I told you in my address of the 26th of March, I had a series of meetings with Sheikh Mujib and his advisers during my stay in Dacca from the 15th of March onwards. Whilst he was having these talks with us, he and his followers were secretly preparing for a final break, through physical violence. Towards the concluding sessions of the talks, it became quite evident that the intention of Sheikh Mujib and his advisers was not to come to an understanding on the basis of one Pakistan, but was somehow to extract from me a proclamation which would in effect divide the National Assembly into two separate Constituent Assemblies, give birth to a confederation rather than a federation, and, by the removal of the authority of Martial Law, create complete chaos in the country. Through this plan they expected to establish a separate State of 'Bangla Desh'. That, needless to say, would have been the end of Pakistan as created by the Father of the Nation.

The unscrupulous and secessionist elements of the defunct Awami League had brought the country to the brink of disintegration. Our dear homeland which symbolizes the fulfilment of the aspirations and the culmination of the relentless struggle of the Muslims of the Subcontinent was in

very grave danger of breaking up. The violent non-co-operation movement of Sheikh Mujibur Rahman and his clique for over three weeks had let loose widespread loot, arson and killing.

The people of East Pakistan had voted for provincial autonomy and *not* for the disintegration of the country. Instead of settling the controversial political and constitutional issues with mutual understanding and in a spirit of give and take for the sake of national solidarity, some of the leading elements of the defunct Awami League chose the path of defiance, disruption and secession. All my efforts to help political parties to arrive at a consensus over an acceptable and lasting constitutional framework were frustrated by certain leaders of the defunct Awami League. On the one hand, they brought the negotiations to an impasse by their persistent intransigence and obduracy, and on the other, intensified their nefarious activities of open defiance of the Government. The very existence of the country, for the creation of which thousands of our brethren laid down their lives and millions suffered untold miseries, was at stake. It was in these circumstances that I ordered the Armed Forces to restore the authority of the Government. No Government worth its name could allow the country to be destroyed by open and armed rebellion against the State.

The valiant Armed Forces of Pakistan, who have always served the Nation with devotion, moved out with firm determination to put an end to the activities of the miscreants. They had a difficult task to perform. It is unfortunate that our neighbour, which has never missed an opportunity to weaken or cripple our country, rushed to help the secessionists with men and material to inflame the situation further. This was all pre-plannned. As the troops moved forward and fanned out, the whole dark plan of collusion between the Awami League extremists, rebels and our hostile neighbour gradually unfolded itself.

It became obvious that the secessionists, miscreants, rebels and intruders from across the border had planned their whole operation carefully and over a considerable period of time. The aim was to destroy the integrity of Pakistan and force the Eastern Zone to secede from the rest of the country. Whilst the miscreants, rebels and intruders were putting up physical resistance to the Pakistan Army, the Indian Radio and Press launched a malicious campaign of falsehood against Pakistan, and tried to mislead the world about happenings in East Pakistan.

The Indian Government began to utilize every coercive measure, including diplomatic offensives, armed infiltration and actual threats of invasion. This open interference in our internal affairs could have had very grave consequences, but by the Grace of Allah, our Armed Forces soon brought the situation under control, destroying the anti-national elements.

The Nation is proud of the Armed Forces, who deserve all its admiration and appreciation. Let us on this occasion bow down our heads in gratitude to Almighty Allah that the country has been saved from disintegration.

Transfer of Power : In my last address to the nation, I had assured you that

my main aim remained the transfer of power, and I had further stated that I would take fresh steps towards the achievement of this aim. Let me at the outset say categorically that there is no question of holding fresh elections. The mischief of some misguided persons should not be allowed to nullify the entire results of the first-ever elections held in the country at enormous cost in terms of money, time and energy. I have banned the Awami League as a political party. However, the MNAs and MPAs-elect of this defunct party retain their status as such in their individual capacities.

I may, however, add that those elected members who have taken part in anti-State activities or have committed criminal acts or have indulged in anti-social activities will be disqualified from membership of the National and Provincial Assemblies. I have not yet finally assessed the exact number of those who would be disqualified. After a thorough investigation a list of such persons will be published. Once this is done, the vacancies caused would be filled in through the usual method of by-elections.

In the meanwhile, I would ask those MNAs and MPAs-elect of the defunct Awami League who had nothing to do with the secessional policies of the ruling clique of that party, and who are not guilty of any criminal acts in pursuance of such policies or who have not committed atrocities against their fellow Pakistanis, to come forward and play their part in re-building the political structure in East Pakistan.

Constitution-Making : After a close and careful study of the situation, particularly of the recent happenings, I have come to the conclusion that the task of framing a Constitution by an Assembly is not feasible. In fact, the history of constitution-making in our country is not a very encouraging or a happy one. The two Constituent Assemblies took nine years to produce a Constitution, that is from 1947 to 1956. The leaders of the country spent an inordinately long period of time on the floor of the Legislature in trying to produce a Constitution while urgent social and economic problems remained unattended and neglected.

But the most regrettable phenomenon of constitution-making in Pakistan was that it gave vent to all sorts of regional and parochial sentiments. In fact, constitution-making gave rise to the worst type of political bickering and intrigue, which threatened the very existence of our country. And when in the end they at last produced a Constitution in 1956, it was a product of all sorts of conflicting compromises and expediencies. The result was that the Constitution was short-lived and the country came under Martial Law from October 1958 to June 1962.

After that, the country was governed under a Constitution which, for well-known reasons, was unpopular right from the start. There was great resentment and a political upheaval in 1969 against this Constitution.

I, therefore, thought that the people's representatives should frame a Constitution of their own; but in order to eliminate the unhappy aspects of the previous attempts at constitution-making in Pakistan, I put a limit of one hundred and twenty days for this exercise.

And I also laid down some basic principles for the Constitution in my

Legal Framework Order.

When I fixed the time-limit of 120 days, it was done in consultation with political leaders, including Mujibur Rahman, and it was expected that they would devote their full attention to the framing of the Constitution, and that a general agreement on the broad aspects of the Constitution would be arrived at outside the Assembly so as to facilitate the task of constitution-making within the stipulated period.

But unfortunately my hopes and plans were frustrated by the uncompromising and unpatriotic attitude of the defunct Awami League.

Constitution Committee : Against this background and in view of the present circumstances, I find that there is no other alternative for me but to have a Constitution prepard by a group of experts. This Constitution will be subject to amendments by the National Assembly on the basis of the amending procedure that will be laid down in the Constitution itself. The Constitution will be based on a careful study of a number of constitutions and also be based on the aspirations of the people of various regions of Pakistan as assessed by me over the last two years.

I have already set up a Constitution Committee and a draft is being prepared by them. Once the draft is ready, I will consult various leaders of the Assembly regarding the provisions of the draft. Final shape will be given to the Constitution in the light of my discussions and consultations with various experts and leaders.

I may add that certain guidelines with regard to the future Constitution have already been spelt out in the Legal Framework Order of 1970. which were generally welcomed by the people.

First, the Constitution of Pakistan must be based on Islamic ideology, on the basis of which Pakistan was created and on the basis of which it is still preserved. It must be the Constitution of the Islamic Republic of Pakistan in the true sense.

The Constitution shall also provide for full social and economic justice to various sections of our society. The Constitution should be a federal one, and it must have all the characteristics of a Federal Constitution. As stated in the Legal Framework Order, the Provinces shall have maximum autonomy, including legislative, administrative and financial; but the Federal Government shall also have adequate powers, including legislative, administrative and financial, to discharge its responsibilities in relation to external and internal affairs, and to preserve the independence and territorial integrity of the country.

I have also indicated to the Committee that in the interest of the integrity of the country, it would be a good thing if we ban any party which is confined to a specific region and is not national in the practical sense. Then again, we must eschew this business of having two, three or four subparties within a party. In short, it is my hope that this Constitution will ensure that everything which tends to make our political life cumbersome, shaky, insecure and unpatriotic is eradicated, and that it helps to infuse the right spirit in the people and the politicians. The Constitution must serve

Pakistan as a whole, and not any individual or group. It must allow each Province to develop itself along the right lines without, in any way, detracting from the strength of the Centre and the integrity of the nation as a whole.

I might clarify here that this Constitution will come into force with effect from the first session of the National Assembly. The by-elections to be held before this will, however, be on the same basis as the General Elections already held, namely, the Legal Framework Order.

Summoning of Assemblies and Formation of Governments : So much, for the future Constitution of Pakistan. Now to continue with my plan of transfer of power. As I said earlier, by-elections will be held to fill in the vacant seats in the National as well as in Provincial Assemblies. Considering the mood of the people, I feel assure that the campaign for these by-elections will be based on the principles contained in the Legal Framework Order.

No one will tolerate the propagation of views which tend to militate against the integrity of Pakistan. I also feel that the campaign should be a brief one. After these elections are completed, the National and Provincial Assemblies will be duly summoned and Governments will be formed at the National as well as Provincial levels throughout the country. The National Assembly will not have to function as a Constituent Assembly but will become our Central Legislature as soon as it is sworn in.

Since the nation has recently been subjected to a very severe jolt, I have decided that the National and the Provincial Governments will have at their disposal the cover of Martial Law for a period of time. In actual practice, Martial Law will not be operative in its present form ; but we cannot allow chaos in any part of the country, and the hands of the Governments need to be strengthened until things settle down.

In order to meet the requirements of this new plan, the Legal Framework Order, 1970, will be duly amended.

Time Frame: Let me now say a word about the time frame of this plan. It is obvious that the plan, in its entirety, cannot be launched immediately because it is important that a reasonable amount of normalcy returns to the country before we think in terms of transferring power.

But, on the other hand, the launching of the plan must not be delayed unduly. When we speak of normalcy, the main considerations are the restoration of law and order, rehabilitation of the administrative structure which was badly disrupted, and a degree of economic rehabilitation.

As regards law and order, I am glad to be able to tell you that the Army is in full control of the situation in East Pakistan. It has crushed the mischief-mongers, saboteurs and infiltrators. But it will take some time before the law and order situation becomes completely normal. The process is in full swing with the active co-operation of the people and their patriotic leaders. The people of East Pakistan have manifested a great sense of patriotism and national unity in helping the Armed Forces in rooting out the miscreants and infiltrators.

As a result of the non-co-operation movement, the economy of East

Pakistan had come to a standstill. The widespread arson, loot and intimidation resorted to by the Awami League secessionists, anti-social elements and infiltrators brought untold sufferings to the innocent people.

A large number of them were terrorized and uprooted and their properties were mercilessly destroyed. They have my fullest sympathy, as also the sympathy of the entire nation. It would be inhuman if their speedy rehabilitation were not given the priority and attention it deserves.

I would like to repeat once again that all citizens of Pakistan of any religion, caste or creed who crossed the border and went into India because of panic created due to false propaganda by rebels, miscreants and others must return to their homes and hearths.

The Government of East Pakistan have made all necessary arrangements for their reception and transportation. I would ask the Indian Government not to put impediments in the way of these unfortunate people who want to resume their normal lives in their own homes and who want to be reunited with their near and dear ones. We shall gladly and gratefully accept any assistance that the United Nations can extend in facilitating the move of these displaced persons back to Pakistan.

I have heard a view being expressed that power should not be transferred to the elected representatives of the people until complete normalcy has returned in every sphere. I am afraid I do not agree with thirs view, because it is utterly unrealistic and impracticable.

It also ignores one very important aspect of national life, which is that normalcy in its accepted meaning can never return to a country without full participation of the people in its administration.

The very process of bringing back normalcy requires the active interest of the people in the process, and this can happen only when the representatives of the people assume responsibility for the administration of the country.

I firmly believe that as soon as we have acquired a basic infrastructure of law and order, and various echelons of administration gather full strength, it will be possible for me to put my plan of transfer of power into operation.

Appreciating the situation as it exists today and as it is likely to develop in the near future, it is my hope and belief that I would be able to achieve my goal in a matter of four months or so. The precise timing will naturally depend on the internal and external situation at the time.

I am absolutely convinced that the country's integrity and well-being lie in the fulfilment of the plan that I have just outlined to you and in the achievement of the final objective.

The Economic Situation : Let me now turn to the vital subject of the economy. Recent events have cast their shadow on the general economic situation. The economy had been subjected to serious strains during the long period of political uncertainty before and after the elections. In March, the economy of East Pakistan was brought to a virtual standstill.

With the success of Army action, the situation is generally returning to normal and economic activity is reviving in the Province.

I am sure that all patriotic elements in the Province would rally round the forces of law and order to achieve complete normalcy and to restart the process of building up the economy of Pakistan.

The rehabilitation of the economy will demand both short-term measures and long-term strategy to rehabilitate it and revive it to its full vigour. For this purpose, we have taken many initiatives which will soon begin to produce the results we desire.

Our exports have sharply declined in recent months in East Pakistan, causing a drain on our foreign exchange reserves, which were already under severe strain. Collection of taxes has also suffered at a time when we need all the resources at our command to preserve our national integrity and maintain the tempo of economic activity.

The Government is taking various steps to meet the present difficult economic situation. These are not always pleasant decisions.

We have to use our resources with much greater restraint. This involves hardship and sacrifices. But there is no alternative. This is the only realistic way for the nation to solve its economic problems.

Some weeks ago, I ordered a thorough revision of the import policy. All inessential items or those without which we could do for some time were banned even under the bonus scheme. Bonus vouchers thus released are to be used under the revised import policy for raw materials and other essential imports.

In domestic spending also, maximum economy is being exercised. For the next year, we have repared a modest development programme which would meet our immediate and unavoidable needs. The emphasis would be on rehabilitation of the economy, particularly in East Pakistan.

I want the country to make early progress towards self-reliance. We must look increasingly towards our own resources for meeting our national objectives. This requires maximum austerity in both public and private spending. The Government is making all necessary adjustments in economic policies with this objective. But these can succeed only with the enthusiastic support of the people. Let us as a nation adopt a more austere way of life suited to our own stage of economic development and eschew every form of ostentatious consumption.

For many years now we have been receiving aid for our development programme from a number of aid-giving countries. This we thankfully acknowledge.

I regret to have to say, however, that lately there have been indications that foreign aid is acquiring certain political overtones and the people of Pakistan are getting the impression that strings are being sought to be attached to such aid. If this be the case, let me say it quite categorically that aid which seeks to make in-roads into our sovereignty is not acceptable to us. We shall be fully prepared to do without it.

I am confident that the private sector would come forward to play an active role in developing Pakistan's own resources. Private investment financed from its own savings can play a major role in reviving the economy at this stage.

This is an hour of crisis for the nation. We need the same determination and resolute will which we showed on a number of previous occasions to safeguard the integrity of Pakistan against internal upheavals and external aggression.

Each one of us has a duty to work hard and to re-build the momentum of economic activity. This is necessary to generate resources for economic development. Each worker in the factory and the peasant in his farm can contribute to this national effort by taking part in the over-all effort to maximize production and make his contribution to the integrity and solidarity of Pakistan.

Let us resolve today, individually and collectively, to maximize production and exports. We must work hard and learn to reduce our dependence on others in every field in the shortest possible time. The sacrifice which this will entail must be borne with patriotic fervour and national solidarity.

I appeal to both labour and management to maintain the best of relations. Let there be understanding and accommodation rather than bickering and strife. Strikes and lock-outs should be avoided at all costs. Such a wastage of the country's productive capacity would be totally unpatriotic at this critical juncture in our national life. I cannot afford to let such unpatriotic activities go unchallenged. Stringent measures shall be taken to curb such tendencies.

Our agriculturists have done a remarkable job in recent years. Food production has increased rapidly since 1965, bringing the country to the threshold of food self-sufficiency. Let them consolidate and improve on their performance in food-grains and at the same time turn their attention to the production of export crops, which present great opportunities for increased output. Government would be willing to provide all necessary facilities and incentives for this purpose.

I have candidly presented before you the difficulties we face today. But let this not give rise to despondency. A large part of the problem we face today is of a temporary nature. It has not affected the basic strength of the economy.

We have a large potential for increasing production both in agriculture and industry. We have today a sizeable class of progressive agriculturists, industrial entrepreneurs and middle-class investors.

These are the assets on which the foundations of a rapidly developing economy are laid. The nation has faced difficult challenges before in its short history. I have no doubt that *Insha' Allah* we would be able to overcome present difficulties with our united efforts and resume our endeavour to build for a prosperous and just society.

Foreign Reactions : Now a word about foreign reactions to our internal trouble. It is a matter for satisfaction that in the difficult situation that the country has faced in the past few months the reaction and response from an overwhelming number of countries has been one of sympathy and understanding of the problem we are facing and trying to resolve.

Our friends abroad have given complete support to the action taken by the Government to maintain the unity and integrity of Pakistan. They have at the same time warned those who have attempted to interfere in our internal affairs to desist from such actions. I should like to take this opportunity to express, on behalf of the Government and the people of Pakistan and on my own behalf, appreciation and gratitude to them.

We are also heartened by the favourable response of the international community, particularly the United Nations Organization and its Agencies, to the need for co-operative assistance in repairing the damage to the economic life of East Pakistan.

At present, we are engaged in consultations with friendly Governments and the UN Secretary-General for securing necessary help for relief work in different fields.

Our plans for the reconstruction of the economy and the early resumption of political activity in East Pakistan are threatened by India's continued interference in our internal affairs. Armed infiltration and open encouragement and assistance to secessionists have heightened tension between the two countries. There has also been a spate of unfriendly statements from responsible sources in India, threatening unilateral action against Pakistan if we did not yield to arbitrary demands. The need of the hour is to desist from such actions and statements as would further inflame the situation. It is through discussions, and not through conflicts, that problems can be resolved. Statesmanship demands the exercise of caution and restraint so that our problems are not further complicated.

As I have said before, armed conflict would solve nothing. On our part, we want to live in peace and harmony with all our neighbours. We do not interfere in the affairs of other people, and we will not allow any one else to interfere in ours.

If, however, a situation is forced upon us, we are fully prepared to defend our territorial integrity and sovereignty. Let there be no misunderstanding or miscalculation about our resolve to maintain the independence and solidarity of Pakistan.

Hour of Trial : My dear countrymen, in the end I would again like to impress upon you that this is an hour of trial for the nation.

Each one of us has to do his utmost honestly and sincerely so that our homeland, which is so dear to us, continues its march on the path of progress. No sacrifice would be too great to bring back economic stability and to ensure the unity of Pakistan.

What we need to meet this challenge is the revival of the spirit and enthusiasm with which we succeeded in establishing Pakistan and the firm determination and resolute will which we have on many occasions shown in defending our country from internal and external threats.

Our enemies are gloating on false hopes of disunity amongst our ranks. They have tried their level best to undo our dear country; but they forget that they are dealing with a people whose life is pulsating with the love of the Holy Prophet, whose hearts are illuminated with the light of

Iman, and who have an unshakable reliance on the help of Almighty Allah.

Let us rise to the occasion, let us come up to the expectations of the Father of the Nation, and once again prove it to the enemies that we are a united nation always ready to frustrate their designs and foil their evil intentions. Each one of us is a *Mujahid*, and any effort to harm us will spell their own disaster.

I have full faith in the patriotism of our people, and I am sure that every single Pakistani will co-operate with me whole-heartedly in the achievement of our common goal, namely, the restoration of democracy in the country, preservation of its integrity and solidarity, and the betterment of the lot of the common man. May Allah grant us success in our efforts. God be with you. God bless you all !

Pakistan Paindabad.

II. Budget Speech of the Economic Adviser

June 26, 1971

I HAVE the honour to present to the nation, the Central Budget for the fiscal year 1971/72. This is a budget prepared under circumstances of exceptional adversity. It is based on a clear recognition of the resource constraints we face today as a developing country seeking self-reliance. It attempts to respond to the imperatives that move us towards a just society. We must act urgently to redress the hardships of vast numbers while renewing and sustaining the productive forces of our economy. We must also initiate significant changes in the framework of economic and social policies. The budget reflects the constraints within which these policies must emerge, and it seeks to apply the fiscal instruments to find solutions to some of our most pressing problems.

Foremost among these problems is the economic Consequences of the worst political crisis faced by the country in its history. The divisive forces, at one stage, gained enough strength to challenge the basic concept and ideology of Pakistan. We owe a great debt of gratitude to the President and our Armed Forces for preserving the integrity and solidarity of the country. At the same time, our hearts are filled with sorrow at the loss of life and property in East Pakistan. Pakistan is a sacred trust for every citizen of this independent nation. Let us rebuild its foundations and recreate a united and strong nation of 130 million people always ready to defend itself against external aggression and internal subversion.

Many of the problems we face today had already begun to emerge in the closing years of the Third Plan. The achievements of the Third Plan were fairly encouraging in economic terms, but their social cost was high. The

social unrest of 1968 developed into widespread political agitations and led to imposition of Martial Law in March, 1969. The new Government was able to restore law and order within a short time, and introduced several reforms to facilitate the restoration of normal political life. The revival of political activity, however, led to a prolonged phase of uncertainty and strife culminating in the breakdown of political negotiations in March 1971.

Current Economic Crisis : These events have cast long shadows on the economy of the country. Commercial activity in East Pakistan was almost completely paralysed from early March. This dislocation came in the wake of a succession of natural calamities. While nature was unkind to agriculture in both parts of the country, human strife held back industrial production. Agricultural production was adversely affected by floods and a cyclone of unprecedented severity in East Pakistan. West Pakistan experienced, on the other hand, the phenomenon of water shortage due to late rains and low discharge in canals. Industrial production suffered from labour unrest, strikes and closure of mills in East Pakistan in March, so that the growth rate in the manufacturing sector fell below 2.5 per cent compared to 8.10 per cent in much of the preceding decade. As a result, the growth rate in Pakistan for the first time in the last ten years fell below the rate of increase in population.

Exports had maintained a healthy overall trend in line with our growth target of 8.5 per cent during the first eight months, but were virtually completely disrupted in East Pakistan after March. Despite the resumption of some export activity in May and June, East Pakistan's exports are likely to show a decline of 23 per cent in the current year, although this will be offset by a rapid expansion of nearly 24 per cent in exports from West Pakistan. The shortfall in exports is directly reflected in a loss of foreign exchange reserves. The reserves declined by about Rs. 400 million[1] during the financial year.

Revenue collections were adversely affected both by the disruption in economic life in East Pakistan and the decline in economic activity in West Pakistan. Total revenue collections were estimated at Rs. 903.7 million in the Budget for 1970/71 (*including the effect of supplementary taxes imposed in January 1977*). Against this, the revised estimates indicate that collections would be Rs. 7,873 million, indicating a shortfall of Rs. 1,164 million. Non-development expenditure, on the other hand, increased from an estimated Rs. 5,216 million to Rs. 5,718 million mainly due to flood and cyclone relief in East Pakistan, increase in defence expenditure and larger subsidy on PIA travel after the unilateral cancellation of overflights by India.

The decline in revenues and increased expenditure resulted in reduced resources for economic development. It is now estimated that the implementation of the Annual Development Programme would be around Rs. 5,532 million, instead of Rs. 6,980 million. Also the deficit financing would aggregate during the year to Rs. 1,550 million instead of Rs. 600 million budgeted earlier, resulting in inflationary pressure.

This serious shortfall in public investment coming together with virtual

[1]Crores (= 10 million) have been converted to millions here and subsequently.

stagnation in private investment, has led to a further decline in the total investment level in relation to our national income. Investment as a proportion of national income which had risen to 18.3 per cent in 1964/65 and had declined to 15.7 per cent in 1966/67, has fallen below 14 per cent in the current year, with adverse consequences for employment and future production.

The Positive Potential : While these indicators highlight the difficult economic phase through which the country is passing, they should not lead to despondency. The economy retains its basic strength. The crisis we face today is caused by unprecedented and exceptional circumstances which are bound to change. We have substantial industrial capacity in the country which can be brought into the production stream fairly quickly. We have converted a sizeable portion of our traditional agricultural sector into a modern progressive force. Agriculture today is much more receptive to change and new ideas. There is a growing class of industrial enterpreneurs in the country willing and capable of undertaking new investments and introducing innovations. We have an expanding reservoir of technically qualified and trained manpower which is ready to play its full part in the progress of the country. Above all, we are a nation which has repeatedly demonstrated its capacity to meet any challenge. This is our hope for the future and the essential capital on which we have to build a sound and prosperous economy. While we cannot afford to ignore the magnitude of our present difficulties, we need not fall into despair just because we are, facing a difficult situation.

Recuperative Measures of 1970/71 : A number of measures have already been taken to meet some of our difficulties. In January, new taxes of over Rs. 160 million were imposed to raise additional resources for cyclone-affected areas. Later, when the collection of taxes was interrupted in East Pakistan, Central assistance to Provinces was reduced by 10 per cent to prevent further recourse to deficit financing.

In April 1971, an unprecedented step was taken to change the import policy in the midst of a shipping period. All imports for which cash licences were being issued were shifted to the cash-cum-bonus list. The cash-cum-bonus list was suspended with some exceptions for East Pakistan. Imports of luxury goods were banned in order to make room for the import of essential raw materials.

Simultaneously, action was initiated to seek a measure of relief in respect of our debt service liability which constitutes an important claim on our cash foreign exchange resources. We asked aid-living countries, both within the Consortium and outside, to postpone conversion of that part of debt servicing which arose out of bilateral aid commitments. We are continuing to make payments in special rupee accounts on due dates. We have not applied any restriction on conversion of debt service payments which relate to commercial transactions.

In June, we were compelled to take another drastic step. Bank notes of Rs. 500 and Rs. 100 were demonetized with effect from June 8, 1971. This

became necessary following large-scale looting of currency chests in East Pakistan. This injection of new currency into the economy would have aggravated the price situation and intensified inflationary pressures. The currency could have been used for subversion and disruption of economic activity in Pakistan.

I am glad to observe that the operation was smoothly carried out, with the willing co-operation of people all over the country. This has reduced the excess liquidity in the economy by about Rs. 900 million due to non-surrender of notes. In addition, it has brought to light large amounts of tax-evaded wealth and has discouraged illegal currency transactions.

To avoid hardship to the people and dislocation of business activity, Government has already ordered the release of all deposits of currency notes not exceeding Rs. 4,900. Decisions regarding the release of deposits of currency notes up to Rs. 100,000 have been separately announced. As declared earlier, there is no intention to demonetize bank notes of Rs. 50 or to take any other measures affecting bank deposits of gold. In the near future, a new series of hundred-rupee notes of an entirely distinctive design will be issued.

The measures outlined above have been helpful in containing the impact of economic crisis. Now we need a new orientation of economic policies which would restore the health of the economy. We also need the participation of the entire population in the task of re-building the economy. The key-note of the new strategy has to be maximum austerity and self-reliance in development.

Self-Reliance Key-Note : The need for self-reliance was never greater than at the present time, when some of the aid-giving countries appear to be hesitating to make fresh aid commitments. To the extent that this attitude constitutes an attempt to influence our domestic political situation, it is wholly contrary to their own professions that aid to developing countries is without political strings. Indeed, we as a nation must be prepared to face up to a situation in which we may have to manage without aid. We have already reduced our dependence on foreign assistance in many critical areas. I am confident that the nation will be prepared to accept any sacrifice to preserve the integrity of the country and to sustain our development effort.

Our objective of development through self-reliance will require a massive national effort to produce more, save more and export more.

Revival of East Pakistan Economy : The most important task in the immediate future is the revival of economic activity in East Pakistan. The ports of Chittagong and Chalna are operational, rail and road communications are being restored throughout the Province, and river transport facilities are being rapidly augmented to make up for the partial interruption of rail and road links. Top priority is being assigned to the movement and distribution of foodgrains. Simultaneously, a major relief programme is being launched in areas of special distress, with the co-operation of the United Nations, with the restoration of law and order, workers are returning to their factories. Industrial pro-

duction and exports have started to move. It willl take some months before the tempo of economic activity regains its normal level. A series of measures are being taken to accelerate this process. These include an integrated programme for the rehabilitation of transport and communications and improved credit facilities for trade and Industry. The PICIC and IDBP have been provided with special funds to meet the working capital requirements of industrial units. These institutions have agreed to re-schedule debt service instalments due from industrial undertakings in East Pakistan. A special line of credit has been given to ADBP to provide assistance for agricultural operations. The Government agencies are providing raw jute to jute mills and wheat to flour mills on credit. Facilities have also been provided for deferring tax payments and for filling tax returns later. The operation of capacity tax system has been suspended for one year in East Pakistan, so that the mills working below capacity due to factors beyond their control are not penalized.

Agriculture : Agriculture remains the backbone of our economy. Nearly half of the country, is income originates in the sector and it provides the base for eighty per cent of the country's exprots directly or indirectly. The Government is taking a number of steps to encourage the growth of agricultural production and employment. The subsidy on fertiliser consumption is being maintained. In East Pakistan a programme of installing 20,000 tube-wells through public sector agencies is making progress with the objective of providing winter irrigation. In West Pakistan, private farmers have been quite active in installing tube-wells. The rate of installation of new tubewells had slowed down, however, because of the difficulties of energising electric-powered tubewells. The Government has decided to provide a special subsidy for sinking tube-wells in riverine and sailaba areas.

Export Promotion : Government will continue to accord high priority to the promotion of exports. The hard-core programme of the new Industrial Investment Schedule reserves the bulk of new investment for export industries. A concrete programme to increase exports by Rs. 1,500 million during the next three years is being formulated. The new strategy will focus on a few selected items where Pakistan's comparative advantage has been established, but where the present small share of the country in total world trade gives us a large potential market. A high-powered Board would concentrate on these items, cutting across administrative channels and obtaining quick decisions.

It has been decided to establish an export credit fund in the State Bank of Pakistan with an initial capital of Rs. 20 million to cater to the requirements of sectors of the export trade where the extension of medium and long-term export credit is usually a necessary condition of sale, as in the case of capital goods. This fund constitutes a nucleus of the export/import bank which we propose to establish in the future. In the case of pre-shipment credits, it is proposed to extend refinancing facilities at a rate of interest below the bank rate, the concession in the interest rate to be equally shared between banks and the exporters.

I am confident that we can expand our exports quite rapidly. I appeal to every businessman and exporter in the country to take part in this programme and do his best for its success.

Home Remittances : Apart from exports, Pakistan has been earning considerable foreign exchange under the Home Remittances Scheme from Pakistani nationals working abroad. There are also a large number of Muslims of Indo-Pakistan origin settled in Africa who would like to migrate to Pakistan. They are a in a position to bring investment funds from abroad on a non-repatriable basis, thereby increasing our foreign exchange earnings. It is now proposed to relax some of the restrictions which were imposed in March 1968 on the entry and immigration of such persons into Pakistan. The minimum amount to be transferred for acquiring Pakistani citizenship is being lowered. They would also be allowed to bring half of the required amount initially, with the balance being transferred in four or five instalments. Necessary powers would be delegated to the Pakistani Missions in the concerned countries for the scrutiny of the financial standing of prospective immigrants and for the issuing of immigration visas. The intending immigrants would be given facilities comparable to those available to Pakistani citizens. They would be required to bring their funds through normal banking channels and allowed 45 per cent bonus on their remittances, as is available to Pakistanis remitting their savings from abroad. Alternatively, they can bring their funds in the form of industrial machienry for investment in line with the Industrial Investment Schedule recently announced.

Development Programme : The impact of the unexpected shortfall in our resources on the current year's development programme has already been mentioned. The National Economic Council has approved a Development Programme of Rs. 550 million for the year 1971/72. This programme is based on a realistic assessment of the country's financial resources and fully reflects the need for consolidation and selectivity.

The Development-Programme is slightly higher than the programme of Rs. 5,350 million implemented in the current financial year and is based on a better ordering of priorities in the light of the changing situation. Every effort has been made to protect all essential and productive projects and to concentrate on programmes which can provide more employment. Despite the squeeze on resources, allocations for less developed areas have been increased.

Of the total programme of Rs. 5,500 million for 1971/72, Rs. 2,790 million will be spent in East Pakistan (including Rs. 300 million for flood control and Rs. 100 million for the reconstruction of the cyclone-affected areas) and Rs. 2,710 million in the four Provinces of West Pakistan (including Rs. 700 million for the Indus Basin Project). In addition, a special grant of Rs. 150 million is being provided for the rehabilitation of damage to transport and other facilities caused by the recent disturbances in East Pakistan. These funds will be used along with any external assistance made available by friendly countries for this purpose.

Investment Effort : Public savings available for financing the Development Programme have been under great pressure because of decline in revenue collections and increase in non-development expenditure. The Central Government is taking a number of measures to increase its own contribution to the investment effort. It has been decided to subject the non-development expenditure to much closer scrutiny.

Stringent provisions are being made to reduce expenditure on construction, travel and entertainment. It has been decided that during the next fiscal year, all Gazetted staff and officers of the Armed Forces drawing a salary exceeding Rs. 500 per month would instead of drawing their increments in cash, either increase their contribution to the Provident Fund or by Defence Savings Certificates of an equal amount for one year. A Committee has been set up to review all non-development expenditure and recommend further economy measures. Similar action is being initiated by each Provincial Government.

To encourage the Provinces to assume greater responsibility for financing their own development programmes, two important decisions have been taken. On the recommendation of the National Finance Committee, the Provincial Governments are being provided an increased share in Central taxes. The Provincial share in the divisible pool is being increased from 65 per cent to 80 per cent providing the Provinces with additional resources to the extent of Rs. 380 million. Secondly, the Provinces have been given definite targets for raising their contribution towards financing their own development programmes. It is hoped that these changes will greatly strengthen the incentives of the Provinces to tap new revenue resources, exploit traditional ones more fully and economize on non-development expenditure.

A significant part of additional resources for financing public sector development outlay must come from the return on our past investments through the public corporations, such as PIDC, WAPDA in each region, and commercial agencies like the railways. In the past, the return on these investments has been poor. The problems in this area of public management are greater in East Pakistan, but the position is not entirely satisfactory in West Pakistan either. The Government is proposing to undertake a thorough review and reorganization of these agencies by inducting commercially oriented and professional executives, and by setting firm targets for a minimum return on investment.

Austerity : I hope that the new tone of austerity that is being set in the public sector will be followed by the private sector with equal vigour. Unnecessary expenditure on business entertainment, travel and office furnishings should be avoided. Expenditure on perquisites which have become a major element in luxury consumption will be discouraged through tax measures. However, without the co-operation of the business community in the spirit in which these measures are conceived, the programme of austerity is not likely to succeed.

The saving effort of the nation is not confined to the Government and

the business community. Every ruppee saved by each individual counts. I make a sincere appeal to every citizen to take part in this national effort. This is where the private interest of the individual is completely in harmony with the broad national interest. Saving is the key to personal economic advancement, and is at the same time a contribution to national progress. The availability of larger private savings reduces the need for more taxation.

The Government has provided a number of incentives for small savings. There is a choice of investing either in fixed-return saving bonds or more enterprising investments in stocks and shares through NIT and ICP. The Government has progressively increased the yield under its own small savings schemes, and has made the investing procedures simpler. For those who prefer the excitement of winning a large prize, Prize Bonds have provided an attractive investment. The capital remains safe. Only the profit is received in the form of prizes. It has now been decided to add a new feature to the scheme. While the existing bond issues of Rs. 10 and Rs. 5 will continue, a new bond of the face value of Rs. 10, will be issued but sold for Rs. 11, whereby the holder will be eligible to win a top prize of Rs. 100,000.

General Welfare and Share in Prosperity : In the past two decades, the basic objective of national economic policy was to seek the maximum possible economic growth through encouragement of private enterprise. For this purpose, planning in Pakistan has primarily been concerned with specifying growth and investment targets and suggesting means of mobilizing resources to reach them. This strategy has yielded results; and progress, both in agriculture and industry, has been fairly encouraging. But in these two decades, both the climate of expectations and the dimensions of development have changed radically. The masses are demanding a much larger share in the economic progress of the country. Workers want rising wages to cushion them against the rise in prices. The small farmers feel they have not had their due share in the fruits of modern technology. Rural areas feel left out of the progress which is concentrated in a few urban centres. Less developed areas feel neglected and protest against the uneven distribution of economic opportunities between various regions. Our future development strategy must take serious note of these aspirations and must seek a better regional and social balance.

Any programme to promote such wide-ranging social objectives will take a long time to accomplish. At the present time, the squeeze on our resources imposes a further constraint on our ability to launch an ambitious programme. There are several areas, however, where a definite, even if modest, beginning can be made.

A programme for austerity and social justice must start by cutting luxury consumption of the relatively well-to-do elements in the society. This can be done to some extent by tax measures, but these must be supported by other policies designed to achieve the same objective.

I am announcing later a number of tax measures designed to increase the burden of direct taxation on higher income brackets. Limits are being imposed on what can be admitted as business expenses by way of perquisites.

The laws governing gift, wealth and inheritance taxes are being modified so that accumulated wealth is subjected to higher taxation.

More directly, the import of many luxury goods has been banned. It has also been decided to place a ban on the construction of large luxury houses. Legislation is being enacted to restrict the size of residential plots in urban areas. Restrictions will also apply to floor area of construction; and where the prescribed limit is exceeded, it will attract penal rates of taxation.

The wasteful expenditure on marriage ceremonies and other festivities remains a major social ill in our society. Restrictions on such expenditure in the past have proved ineffective. It is now proposed to enact legislation restricting the number of guests on all such occasions to a maximum of 150, including hosts. Special dermission would be required to hold functions for a larger number, and a special tax of Rs. 10 per head will have to be paid if the number exceeds the prescribed limit.

Middle-Level Investors and Entrepreneurs : Positive effort is also needed to build a broad-based class of middle level investors, entrepreneurs and businessmen. This, together with the intelligentsia and professional classes, constitutes the middle class and provides the basis for both stability and progress. Government has been taking various measures to help the growth of middle level entrepreneurs and businessmen. Newcomers are given definite preference in the new industrial sanctions by PICIC and IDBP. The policy of inducting newcomers in the import trade has been retained in each successive import policy despite the limitation of resources. The State Bank of Pakistan devised a scheme last year for inducing banks to lend a minimum percentage of their funds to small borrowers. The Equity Participation Fund has been helping new industrial entrepreneurs in finding part of the equity for their ventures.

At present while large and medium industries can obtain fairly adequate facilities of foreign exchange loans from PICIC and IDBP, small entrepreneurs face many difficulties. Their requirements of foreign exchange are small, but they cannot afford to wait too long for their credit applications to be processed. The Government has, therefore, decided to earmark special funds for issuing import licences for machinery for small industries catering to export market.

The maximum limit for industrial licences under the scheme would be Rs. 500,000. The sanctioning procedure would be simple and expeditious, with no detailed scrutiny. The only condition would be an undertaking that the industrial unit will export goods equal to twice the value of the import licence, within a maximum period of six years. In the case of engineering and capital goods industries, the maximum period for meeting the export commitment would be nine years.

Education and Research : Problems of students deserve special attention in any social programme. The present regime, soon after taking over, formulated a new education policy which was announced last year. This is being implemented. In order to encourage real talent and merit, the Government has now decided to institute a special scholarship. This will be called the

Quaid-i-Azam Scholarship. Every year, one student would be selected from each of the 14 universities in the country on the basis of academic record. These Scholars would be awarded fellowships of £1,000 a year for post-graduate studies abroad.

There has been a lack of research on problems that are peculiar to our agriculture and other vital sectors of the economy. I propose to create a fund of Rs. 50 million for the establishment of a National Science Foundation. An initial sum of Rs. 10 million will be provided for this purpose in the next financial year. The Foundation would be responsible for promoting research through grants to universities as well as specialized research organizations in support of projects of national priority.

There is an acute need to developed textbooks which would reflect Pakistan's founding concepts and ideology. A Bureau for Curricula and Text-books has been established by the Education Division. I propose to allocate an initial contribution of Rs. 2 million for this Bureau.

The prices of textbooks at the college and university level are generally beyond the reach of most students. I propose to place Rs. 14 million at the disposal of the universities for setting up 'book banks' where multiple copies of prescribed textbooks would be available to students on a loan basis.

Housing : For the urban dweller, the basic problem is housing. The House Building Finance Corporation has been providing advances for construction of small houses. The amount of funds at its disposal is, however, small. It is hoped that the ban on larger-sized plots and luxury houses would improve the availability of smaller plots. This would increase the demand for houses. In order to further improve credit facilities for house-building, it is now proposed to set up a number of saving and loan associations. The necessary legislation is being prepared.

Employment : Employment is a major objective of our social and economic policy. It leads to a more productive utilization of the country's human resources. At the same time, it results in a wider dispersal of incomes. Thus it is through a focus on employment criteria that the claims of justice can be best synthesized.

The new development strategy seeks to concentrate upon more labour-intensive sectors and projects. Priority for agricultural development, apart from other advantages, meets this objective. Special emphasis is being placed on the rural works programme in East Pakistan, to improve the rural employment situation and to increase purchasing power. In West Pakistan, measures designed to improve crop intensity through expanded tube-well irrigation should have a direct impact on rural employment.

The unemployment of educated youth in urban areas presents a special problem. Apart from its social and psychological impact on the individual concerned, it means wastage of considerable national investment in developing skills. In part, this phenomenon reflects the imbalance in our educational system, and a lack of emphasis on functional education. However, it also means that our development activities are not expanding at a

sufficient pace to absorb the trained manpower we are turning out from our educational institutions.

There is no easy and quick solution for the problem. The Government has taken two special measures which will help in relieving the situation.

It has been decided to set up a special fund for helping technically qualified persons to establish themselves in small enterprises such as workshops, laundries, bakeries or distribution outlets. Initially a sum of Rs. 30 million will be set aside for this purpose, and be used for direct lending or for inducing commercial banks to provide loans for this purpose. The details of this scheme will be worked out by the State Bank of Pakistan.

In some cases where we have a surplus of trained personnel and cannot employ them, there is a large demand for their services in other countries. So far no organization exists for helping unskilled workers and technical personnel to find employment abroad. The Government has decided to set up a Bureau of Emigration for the purpose. The new organization will determine the demand for various types of workers in foreign countries and promote the export of labour on a planned basis.

There are definite limits to what the Government can do in the short run. We can only make a modest beginning towards our social objectives but this beginning should be made immediately. It is in this spirit that changes in economic policies in various fields are being initiated.

Taxation Proposals

Now I turn to the problem of financing the development programme outlined by me :

On the revenue side, receipts at existing rates of taxation are projected at Rs. 8,770 million, about Rs. 100 million below the original budget estimates for the current financial year, but Rs. 900 million above the depressed revised estimates for 1970/71.

After adjusting, however, for the larger non-development expenditure and deductions, the Provincial shares of Central revenues (on the basis of existing shares in the divisible pool), the surplus available out of Central revenue for financing the Development Programme is about Rs. 1,090 million. To this can be added the net receipts on capital account of Rs. 245 million, raising the total availability of Central internal resources to Rs. 1,335 million.

Our Development Programme for the next financial year involves an outlay of Rs. 5,500 million. After allowing for an operational shortfall of Rs. 330 million, the net outlay will be Rs. 5,170 million. External resources likely to be available for the Programme, mostly from old commitments, are estimated at Rs. 2,560 million, leaving Rs. 2,610 million to be financed from internal resources.

The Provinces are expected to finance Rs. 330 million out of their own resources, leaving a Central financing problem of Rs. 2,280 million.

As I have already indicated, internal resources in sight on the basis of existing taxation are of the order of Rs. 1,335 million.

Thus we are faced with a resource gap of Rs. 945 million in the implementation of the modest Annual Development Programme outlined by me. There has been a considerable monetary expansion in the current financial year. Despite the fact that the ill effects of this increase in money supply have been neutralized to a large extent by the successful demonetization operation launched by the Government recently, it seems prudent not to indulge in substantial deficit financing during the next financial year, in order to curb inflationary tendencies and maintain price stability. Inflationary financing is the most arbitrary form of taxation and places a disproportionately heavy burden on the poorer section of our community. Government have, therefore, decided that the major portion of the resources gap should be filled through taxation rather than through deficit financing. In the strained financial position in which we find ourselves, a special effort will be necessary for resource mobilization.

Existing Sources of Revenue : In the first place, we have to obtain the maximum revenues from the existing sources of taxation. There is no point in imposing new taxes without realizing the feasible potentiality of the existing tax structure. An all-out effort has to be made to tone up tax administration. The Central Board of Revenue is being reorganized under a full-time Chairman, and only senior and especially selected officials will be appointed members.

With a view to undertaking economic analysis of fiscal measures introduced from time to time, the Directorate of Research and Statistics of the Central Board of Revenue will be reorganized and strengthened. The proposals in this regard include provision of competent and qualified economists and introduction of mechanization in the Statistical Wing for furnishing timely and accurate data for policy formulation.

One of the main impediments in the way of the smooth functioning of our tax administration is the great complexity of our Income-Tax Law which baffles the assessees and even the assessors. Action for simplification of the existing Income-Tax Law is already at an advanced stage. The draft of the new Act has been circulated for eliciting public opinion. It is hoped that it will be possible to replace the present Income-Tax Act by a new and much simpler Act during the course of the next financial year.

A two-pronged drive will be launched against tax evasion and laxity in tax collection. A principal factor responsible for income-tax evasion has been the difficulty in discovering potential assessees. The income-tax staff has been pre-occupied with routine work relating to existing assessees. This has resulted in a large number of potential assessees escaping income-tax altogether.

In order to overcome this problem it has been decided to establish a Survey, Collection and Investigating Unit in the office of each Commissioner of Income-Tax. This Unit will be headed by an Assistant Commissioner of Income Tax and will be responsible exclusively for bringing new assessees into the income-tax fold.

Steps are being taken to simplify the appellate procedure so as to

expedite the finalization of income-tax assessments. At present, an appeal against the order of the Income-Tax Officer lies with the Appellate Assistant Commissioner of Income-Tax. Appeal against the order of the Appellate Assistant Commissioner of Income-Tax lies with the Income-Tax Appellate Tribunal. It has been decided to eliminate the intermediary stage of appeal before the Appellate Assistant Commissioner, and henceforth appeals against the orders of the Income-Tax Officer will lie direct with the Income-Tax Appellate Tribunal. The Tribunal is being suitably strengthened to ensure disposal of appeals. The Appellate Assistant Commissioners of Income-Tax rendered surplus by this measure will be assigned duties in the organization for tracing new assessees and for carrying out recovery of arrears.

A special Tax Recovery Organization has been set up recently in the Income-Tax Department. The results achieved by this organization will be reviewed during the next financial year. Full powers are being delegated to the Recovery Officers for collections of arrears.

As a result of improvement in tax administration and plugging the lacunae in existing tax laws, it is expected that there will be a substantial increase in tax receipts from existing sources of revenue. In particular, realistic targets of Rs. 70 million and Rs. 50 million, respectively, have been given to the Income-Tax Department and the Central Excise Department for recovery of arrear dues. This will reduce the revenue gap of 945 million to 825 million.

Dry Port at Lahore : West Pakistan is at present served by only one port located at the southern extremity. There have been strong demands from the up-country importers and industrialists for provision of facilities for setting up dry ports or inland customs stations at sutiable places, to enable customs and other formalities to be completed at a place which is easily accessible to them. I am glad to announce that the Government has accepted the proposal in principle and arrangements have been put in train to establish a dry port at Lahore on an experimental basis.

Depending on the success of the proposed arrangements at Lahore, inland customs stations may be set up at other places both in East Pakistan and West Pakistan. This facility will be of use to both importers and exporters, as it will minimize cost and time involved in the process of consigning and clearance of goods. It would also reduce congestion at the seaports.

New Sources of Revenue : In mobilizing new sources of revenue the Government has kept in view the following principles ·

(i) As far as possible, additional revenues be raised by direct taxation in order to ensure that the funds are raised from persons most able to bear the burden and impact on prices is avoided.

(ii) While selecting items of indirect taxation their impact on the prices of the necessities of the common man should be kept in view.

In seeking to tap additional sources of revenue, Government has benefitted from, the recommendations submitted in the interim report of the Taxation Commission. In line with the thinking of the Commission greater

use is proposed to be made of the tax system to promote equity in income distribution. Our income-tax structure is basically progressive. However, numerous incentives and concessions have been allowed to tax-payers from time to time which have blunted the progressivity of the tax schedule and considerably eroded the taxation base. The whole system of exemptions, deductions, rebates and concessions relating to personal and corporation taxes had been reviewed by the Taxation Commission, and its recommendations in this respect have been substantially accepted by Government and are reflected in the Taxation measures I am announcing today.

Taxation Measures : I shall first deal with measures relating to personal taxation. The present high rate of investment allowance, with a maximum of Rs. 25,000, is being effectively enjoyed only by well-to-do persons who can afford to save, and discriminates against the smaller assessees whose saving capacity is low. It has, therefore, been decided to reduce the maximum amount of investment allowance to Rs. 10,000 and to allow it at a single rate of 20 per cent of total income.

At present, personal allowance is available at a rate of Rs. 2,000. This is being reduced to Rs. 1,000. The Education Allowance is being continued as at present.

At present, earned income relief is admissible on income arising from salary, profits of business, profession and vocation and from other sources if it is immediately derived from personal exertion. The nature of income from salary is, however, different from that pertaining to the other sources, in the sense that salary arises only from personal exertion, while business profit is mainly the result of capital and only partly of labour. In the case of income from business, profession and vocation, liberal deductions for various expenses are being allowed against the gross income to arrive at the net income. In the case of salary, however, gross income is taken as the net income. It has accordingly been decided that earned income relief will henceforth be admissible only to salaried persons at the existing rates.

At present, dividends paid out of taxed capital gains of a company are exempt in the hands of shareholders, while those out of other taxed income are subjected to tax in their hands. Since there is no justification for this discrimination, dividends from capital gains will also be taxed in the hands of the shareholders like other dividends.

Lavish perquisites are being granted by companies to their employees. On this account, the companies are at present entitled to deductions against their own profit to an amount equal to 75 per cent of the salary of the employee or Rs. 10,000, whichever is greater. To put a curb on these levish perquisites, it has been decided to restrict such deductions to 30 per cent of the cash salary, including bonus and commision of the employees. The present restriction on deduction of perquisites is applicable only in the cases of companies. It has been decided to apply this restriction henceforth to all employees.

For rent-free furnished and unfurnished accommodation provided by the employer, 15 per cent and 10 per cent respectively of the salary will be

added to the annual emoluments of the employee instead of 10 per cent and 7.5 per cent as prescribed at present.

The existing provision for conveyance allowance allows a higher concession to a car owner drawing a higher salary. There is no justification for this. Henceforth, conveyance allowance will be provided at the following flat annual rates :

Rs. 1,200 per motor car,

Rs. 360 for motor cycle scooter,

Rs. 240 for all other salaried persons.

The limit of exemption as well as the rate of tax for long-term capital gains is very liberal. In the case of such gains arising from disposal of assets by individuals, the exemption limit is being reduced to 60 per cent or Rs. 5,000, whichever is higher. In the case of companies and registered firms, the rate is being increased from 20 to 25 per cent.

These proposals in the sphere of personal income-tax will undoubtedly raise the tax bite on individuals, especially those who were taking full advantage of investment allowance. This step can, however, be viewed as restoring the equity inherent in the progressive statutory rate schedule of income-tax, but the application of which was suspended by the various exemptions and reliefs which had been given from time to time. The total increase in revenue as a result of these measures relating to personal taxation is estimated at Rs. 72 million.

It may, however, be clarified here that salaried persons will get substantial relief on account of surcharge of 12.5 per cent on income-tax which is being withdrawn with effect from July 1, 1972. Deductions from salaries have already bee made during the year 1970/71 both for this surcharge as well as the cyclone surcharge. In all such cases, no further deduction will be made during the next financial year on account of surcharge.

In the sphere of company taxation, Government has again followed the Taxation Commission's recommendations in reducing the number of exemptions and allowances that erode the tax base and weaken elasticity.

Perhaps the single most important concession in the corporate tax area relates to the tax holiday. In view of the resource constraint, it has been decided as an emergency measure to subject tax holiday companies to normal corporation taxes for the assessment year 1971/72, at a gain to revenue of about Rs. 100 million Tax collected from tax holiday companies on this basis will, however, be allowed as a credit against the future tax liability of the concern following the expiry of the tax holiday period. In other words, this would be an interest-free loan which the tax holiday companies would be extending to the Government to tide over the present emergency.

Another change in the corporate taxation field relates to the distribution of profit. At present, a rebate of 15 per cent is allowed on profits distributed as dividend, in order to ensure an adequate sharing of the profits earned by the company with its share-holders. Rather than offer this incentive at the cost of Government revenue, it has been decided to obtain the same effect through a tax on undistributed profits. Where the distribution of profit is less than 60 per cent of income, an additional tax at the rate of 25

per cent for private and 15 per cent for public companies shall be levied on undistributed profits, after allowing a margin for retention of 10 per cent of total income. The definition of a public company is also being broadened to encourage formation of more broadbased companies. Keeping in mind the number of measures which have been taken in recent years to encourage such companies to be established, the existing rebate of 10 per cent in super-tax for public companies is being reduced to 5 per cent. The rebate in super tax which was previously being allowed to small private companies at 5 per cent is also being withdrawn to encourage the formation of small public companies. Since the tax on free reserves partakes of the characteristics of a tax on undistributed profits, it is being abolished. Also, the surcharge of 10 per cent introduced through the Finance Ordinance of 1970 will be withdrawn with effect from July 1, 1972. The net effect of these proposals will be to raise revenue from taxes on companies by Rs. 156 million.

Apart from these main income tax proposals outlined by me, a number of other minor changes are being made. I will mention three of these which may be of general interest :

(i) Recently, a statutory base has been provided for the constitution of investment companies. As an incentive for the formation of such companies, a provision is being made that income of such companies with 90 per cent contribution of capital by the public, and distributing more than 90 per cent of their income to shareholders as dividend, will be exempt from payment of tax. As a further concession for the capital market, it has been decided that withholding of tax on interest earned by debentures will be discontinued.

(ii) The productivity of our industries depends on the skills developed by our labour force. To encourage construction and equipment of training institutes for industrial workers, it has been decided to allow capital investment in training institutes for industrial workers as a deduction in computing the income of the assessee.

(iii) The Government encourages companies to create superannuation funds for the benefit of its employees and their dependents. The contribution of both employers and employees as also the income of the approved funds are at present exempt under the Income-Tax Act. Despite these concessions, the number of such funds has remained small. The poor response appears to be due to complicated financial operations and long-term commitments involved in such funds. It has, therefore, been decided to encourage insurance companies to enter this field. Henceforth against the surplus of superannuation business of an insurance company, deduction shall be allowed for the full amounts set apart for superannuation fund policy holders. It has also been decided that in case of pensioners more than 60 years of age, pension will be exempt from tax.

Completed Assessments : There have been complaints from taxpayers that undue use of the provisions of Section 34 of the Income Tax Act is being made for re-opening completed assessments after many years. This causes hardship in some genuine cases; and instructions will be issued that com-

pleted assessments will not in future be opened beyond four years from the end of the assessment year unless tax fraud is involved in a case. In view of the special circumstances obtaining in East Pakistan this year, the period of limitation for assessments in that Province will be five years.

Estate Duty : When estate duty was introduced in 1950, the exemption limit was initially fixed at Rs. 100,000. This limit was raised to Rs. 200,000 subsequently. The exemption limit is too liberal, and in accordance with the recommendations of the Taxation Commission, it is now being reduced to Rs. 100,000. The slab between Rs. 100,000 and Rs. 200,000 will be taxed at 12.5 per cent.

At present, there is an exemption of Rs. 200,000 in respect of agricultural land and an exemption of Rs. 150,000 in respect of one residential house. However, the aggregate of these two cannot exceed Rs. 200,000. The exemption limit in respect of agricultural land is proposed to be reduced to Rs. 100,000—at the same time, in order to avoid hardship in cases where there is little other property or savings to pay up the duty, it is proposed to exempt one residential house regardless of the value.

In order to ensure uniformity of treatment for valuation of agricultural land, it is proposed to adopt the same method of valuation as in the wealth tax, namely, that valuation in West Pakistan shall be 10 times the produce indices, and in East Pakistan it shall be 16 times the income assessed for purposes of the agricultural income-tax levied by the Provincial Government.

Exemptions: A number of exemptions in assessment of estate duty have been allowed in the past. It is now proposed to withdraw the exemption in case of Post Office Savings Bank deposits, Post Office Savings Certificates and NIT Units held by the deceased. Another notable change in the estate duty is that the heirs will now be able to surrender property in lieu of the estate duty at the valuation adopted by the officers of the Estate Duty Department. The purpose is to prevent arbitrary assessments by the valuation staff.

At present, gifts of Rs. 10,000 made in one year are exempt from gift-tax. It is proposed to reduce this limit to Rs. 5,000. Gifts to a spouse to the extent of Rs. 100,000 in the lifetime are exempt from gift-tax. This exemption is resulting in avoidance of income-tax and wealth-tax. It is, therefore, proposed to reduce this limit to Rs. 50,000. Gift-tax is also being evaded by increase in dower money long after the marriage. In order to discourage this, it has been decided that any increase in dower over and above that fixed at the time of marriage will be chargeable to gift-tax.

For gift-tax purposes, it is also proposed to adopt the same method of valuation of agricultural land and urban property as in case of wealth-tax. In case of the wealth-tax, the basic exemption limit at present is Rs. 400,000, but any person owning and occupying a house for his own residence has the option to claim exemption for that house, and in such a case the basic exemption excluding the house, is Rs. 300,000. In order to

broaden the tax base for the wealth tax, it is proposed to reduce the basic exemption limit to Rs. 200,000, and for such persons who claim exemption in respect of one residential house, to Rs. 100,000. The slab of Rs. 200,000 after the exemption shall be chargeable to wealth-tax at 1/2 per cent. The next Rs. 500,000 will be charged at 1.0 per cent and after that another slab of Rs. 500,000 will be chargeable to wealth-tax at 1.5 per cent. The rate for the remaining slabs will remain unchanged.

The value of shares of a company which has not commenced commercial production is at present excluded from the wealth of the shareholder for wealth-tax purposes. This exemption has been a means for avoidance of wealth-tax and as such is being withdrawn.

The total additional revenue from these measures relating to estate duty, gift-tax and wealth-tax is estimated at Rs. 3.1 million.

Central Excise : In the field of Central excise, I propose to start with relief measures. There are a number of small items of Central excise which bring little revenue, but cause much irritation and unnecessarily affect consumer prices. It has accordingly been decided to abolish such excises. I am removing duty from stainless steel products, steel furniture, electric goods, leather footwear and advertisements. Nylon yarn, whether imported or locally produced, is charged to a duty of Rs. 5 per pound. The duty on indigenous production will be reduced to Rs. 3.50 per pound to give a competitive advantage of Rs. 1.50 per pound to the local industry. The total loss from these concessions is estimated at Rs. 7.2 million.

In a few other cases, the rate or the grant of partial exemptions has created anomalies or difficulties for the industry. I propose to rationalize the rate structure in such cases. Dry battery cells are charged at progressive rates of 7.5 per cent, 25 per cent and 40 per cent under three retail price slabs. The rate of 40 per cent applicable to dry cells priced above 85 paisa is being abolished. All dry cells exceeding 60 paisa per cell in retail price will be subjected to a duty of 25 per cent.

Mild steel products are charged a duty of Rs. 25 per ton up to the retail price of Rs. 1,850 per ton at Karachi and Rs. 1,900 per ton at Chittagong. Additional duty is charged at 80 per cent of the retail price in excess of the prescribed limits. The import price of billets having gone up, these cellings can no longer hold the price line. In fact, the rate of 80 per cent of retail price operates to inflate the price much beyond what would be justified on account of the rise in costs. I propose to abolish the additional 80 per cent duty and to charge all mild steel products to a specific duty of Rs. 50 per ton.

Woollen fabrics priced up to Rs. 25 per yard in retail are exempt. Fabrics selling above this price are taxed at 12.5 per cent, 20 per cent and 30 per cent. Progressive taxation linked with retail prices has created difficulties for assessment of tax without giving any real benefit to the consumer. The duty is being evaded on the basis of hypothetical retail prices. I propose to withdraw the different slab rates and to tax all woollen fabrics at 15 per cent *ad valorem*.

Tax policy relating to art silk industry has undergone rapid changes during the last two years. At present, the duty is charged at the processing stage at progressive *ad valorem* rates ranging from 7.5 per cent to 15 per cent. This has resulted in substantial fall in revenue. Some factories have closed down. The Budget Conference held at Karachi in May 1971 suggested that rates of duty should be reduced and option be given to all units, irrespective of size, to pay duty on a loom basis. These suggestions have been accepted.

In order to help the industry to improve its productivity, I propose to give an option to all fabricating units to pay duty at 30 paisa per linear yard produced or at a fixed monthly charge on installed loom basis at the following rates: (a) factories equipped with power looms, not exceeding 20—Rs. 100 per loom; (b) factories equipped with not more than 50 power looms—30 looms at Rs. 100 per loom, balance at Rs. 150 per loom; (c) factories with power looms exceeding 50—20 looms at Rs. 100 per loom, balance at Rs. 250 per loom; (d) WARP knitting machines—Rs. 500 per machine.

There will be no charge at the stage of processing so that a factory opting to pay on the loom basis will be free from all excise controls.

Hotels were subjected to an excise duty of 10 per cent on their charges. Some anomalies have cropped up in the definition of 'hotel' so that certain restaurants attached to hotels serving alcoholic drinks and having floor shows have successfully avoided the levy. This anomaly is being removed to bring such restaurants into the excise net.

The above rationalization proposals are expected to yield an additional revenue of Rs. 15 million.

Cement, soda ash, sugar, vegetable ghee and cotton textiles are assessed at present on a production capacity basis. The position regarding the taxation of these products has been subjected to a careful review during the current financial year.

As the production of vegetable ghee largely depends on the quantum of imported oil, which is an uncertain factor, it is proposed to remove it from the capacity list and to assess it on actual production. The industry would be placed under a self-clearance procedure and excise control would be exercised through verification of raw materials and external checks on clearance. The reduced rate of duty which is being charged at present will continue during the next financial year, provided the industry continues to co-operate in maintaining reasonable retail prices for their products.

Cement and soda ash will continue under the capacity system without any change.

In the case of sugar, an option will be given to mills to pay duty under the capacity system or on clearance. Option once exercised will be final for the full financial year. Failure to exercise the option within the prescribed period will be considered an option in favour of actual production and clearance. Simultaneous with the option, the production capacities of all sugar mills will be raised by 10 per cent. The additional revenue is projected at Rs. 10 million.

Businessmen from East Pakistan who attended the Budget Conference at Karachi did not consider it possible for the textile units to operate at optimum capacity for some time, and suggested that the capacity system should be suspended in East Pakistan for a specified period. This suggestion has been accepted, and cotton textile mills in East Pakistan will be assessed on actual production and clearance of yarn and fabrics during the next financial year 1971/72.

In West Pakistan, cotton textile industry will continue to be assessed under capacity system. Rates of duty for cotton yarn are being raised by about 10 per cent and for fine and superfine fabrics by 10 paisa per yard. These measures are likely to yield an additional revenue of Rs. 30 million.

While 20-count yarn classified as coarse qualifies for an export rebate of 55 paisa per pound, 21-count yarn is entitled to export rebate at double this rate. The excessive incentive for exports is being partly passed on to foreign buyers, with the result that 21-count yarn is fetching a lower price in foreign markets as compared to 20-count yarn. To remedy this situation, an export duty of 20 paisa per pound is being levied on the export of cotton yarn of 21 to 24 counts. The resultant yield of Rs. 20 million has been accounted for under customs duties.

In order to remove the grievance of the mills regarding delay in the disposal for representations against capacity, it is proposed to replace the Review Board and the Special Committee by a standing tribunal manned by full-time senior officials to expedite disposal.

I am adding only one new item to the excise list. A duty of 20 paisa per cheque will be levied on all bank cheques produced and issued by the Security Printing Corporation. The Corporation will recover the duty from the banks. The banks may or may not charge this amount from their customers. Receipts from this source are estimated at Rs. 20 million.

Tobacco is injurious to health, and the Government has no intention of encouraging this habit. The Budget Conference at Karachi made a number of recommendations regarding enhancement of taxation on tobacco and cigarettes. It is proposed to levy a surcharge in addition to the present duty assessed on the retail price of cigarettes. The surcharge shall be at the rate of 5 and 10 paisa per 10 cigarettes priced between 21 and 75 paisa and at 15 paisa per 10 cigarettes priced above 75 paisa. Cigarettes priced up to 20 paisa per packet of ten, which are competing with *bidis* and are consumed by the poor, will be exempt from this surcharge. The surcharge will be levied in addition to the retail price (inclusive of duty) which is presently being charged. It will be recoverable in addition to the retail price and will be shown separately on each packet. Revenue from surcharge on cigarettes is estimated at Rs. 170 million.

I would now turn to import duties. It may be recalled that substantial relief in import duties was given in order to arrest the rise in prices of essential consumer goods and raw materials shifted to cash-cum-bonus lists in the revised import policy announced in April last. To provide further relief to industry and ultimately to the consumer, it has been decided to grant complete exemption from duty to all bonus imports of organic and inorganic

chemicals not manufactured in the country, synthetic organic dye-stuffs, special-purpose papers, primary and semi-manufacture of non-ferrous metals, remeltable scrap of iron and steel and ships for breaking up.

Duty is also being reduced on paper-bags required for inter-wing movement of cement from 75 percent to 25 per cent. Tyres and tubes for motor cycles and scooters from 75 per cent to 40 per cent. Urdu and Bengali typewriters are being completely exempted from duty.

As a result of recent changes in import policy, under which many of the raw materials are being imported under bonus, the protection of our industries has acquired a new dimension. With a view to improving the competitiveness of indigenous industry *vis-a-vis* competing imports of finished products, the following adjustments in industry are being made :

(a) Duty on distempers and nitrocellulose paints is being increased from 75 per cent to 100 per cent and on other paints, varnish and lacquers from 62.5 per cent to 75 per cent.

(b) Electric filament lamps, discharge lamps and electrically ignited flash bulbs will be subject to a duty of 100 per cent instead of 75 per cent.

(c) Rebate of duty on synthetic resin will be allowed to chipboard and plywood industries and duty on imported plywood will be raised from 100 per cent to 150 per cent.

The case of protection relating to other industries will be dealt with expeditiously on merit.

In January last, duties on yarn of man-made fibres were changed from *ad valorem* to specific rates. The measure was intended to check under-invoicing of imports and encourage inflow of better quality of imported products. With the same objective in view, duty on metallic yarn, i.e. lurex and similar products, is being changed from an *ad valorem* rate of 100 per cent to the specific rate of Rs. 16 per lb.

In order to encourage import of extra-long staple cotton for spinning of yarns of high counts, total exemption from duty is being granted to this item.

The above measures will result in a net loss of revenue of the order of Rs. 44.3 million, the bulk of which is attributable to raw materials for industries which have recently been shifted from cash-cum-bonus to bonus.

No major revision is being made in the internal postal rates except with regard to two items, i.e. registration fee and greeting cards. The registration fee is being increased from 50 to 60 paisa. This had remained unaltered since 1963. At present, greeting and invitation cards fall in the category of book-sample packets and are charged at the rate of 10 paisa per article as against the normal postage rate of 20 paisa applicable to letters. The existing rate of 10 paisa does not cover the operational expenses. It has been decided to put greeting cards in the category of letters and raise the charge to 20 paisa. The foreign postage rates have also been revised in line with the agreed international rate structure. The additional revenue receipts on account of these changes are estimated at Rs. 21.2 million, of which only Rs. 3.1 million are on account of adjustments in internal postage rates.

The resources proposed to be mobilized by me aggregate to about Rs. 586 million, inclusive of Rs. 120 million on account of recovery of arrears,

of which about half will be raised through direct taxation. This will reduce the gap to about Rs. 360 million, which could appropriately be covered by deficit financing.

This budget admittedly does not solve all our problems, but it does constitute a step in the right direction and indicates several important changes in our economic and social policies. There is more of direct taxation and a larger burden on the well-to-do classes. With their wealth and their stake in the society, they should willingly accept it. A stable society can be built up only through progress both in the economic and social spheres. This should be our goal, and our constant endeavour should be directed towards achieving it.

The nation today faces a grave threat to its integrity. We won our independence in 1947 against heavy odds and with little sympathy or support from outside. We have to rekindle the same spirit to preserve today what we achieved in 1947. Let us, therefore, address ourselves to the task which lies ahead, united in spirit, determined in our resolve, with faith in our destiny and, above all, faith in God. Like that of many of my countrymen, it is my passionate belief that Pakistan came into existence under a Divine scheme, and despite many tribulations and crises, is bound to emerge as a strong country which, we trust, will be a source of strength also to the Muslim world. Let us, therefore, renew our pledge to our ideology and be worthy of our destiny.

TABLE I

Central Budget at a Glance 1970/71 and 1971/1972

A. Revenue Budget

(Million rupees)

	1970/71 Budget	1970/71 Revised	1971/72 Budget
Receipts			
Customs	1,808.0	1,700.0	1,800.0
Central Excise Duties	2,862.4	2,490.0	2,800.0
Income Tax and Corporation Tax	1,182.0	1,010.0	1,150.0
Sales Tax	783.0	700.0	800.0
Interest Receipts	1,320.0	1,292.7	1,502.4
Currency and Mint	95.5	95.5	83.3
Post Office (net)	6.4	−5.0	−1.5
Telegraph and Telephone (net)	180.5	112.6	120.7
Defence Services	141.8	137.8	150.0
Other Revenue	495.4	339.4	368.5
TOTAL	8,875.2	7,873.0	8,773.4
Expenditure			
Revenue Collecting Departments	78.1	76.4	77.2
Civil Administration	723.4	814.3	805.6
Defence Services	3,000.0	3,200.0	3,400.0
Civil Works and Central Road Fund	64.4	70.1	80.4
Interest Payments	1,130.2	1,114.6	1,289.6
Grants to Provincial Governments (Non-Development)	40.0	244.8	184.8
Other Non-Development Expenditure	180.3	198.1	214.7
Development Expenditure—Grants to Provincial Governments	275.0	304.0	280.1
Other Development Expenditure	138.7	114.1	99.1
Less: Development Expenditure met from Foreign Aid and Reserve Funds	−95.8	−133.8	−156.3
TOTAL	5,534.3	6,002.6	6,275.2
Add: Revenue Assignments to Provinces	1,546.8	1,411.7	1,633.1
Revenue Surplus	1,794.1	458.7	865.1
TOTAL	8,875.2	7,873.0	8,773.4

TABLE I (Contd.)

B. Capital Budget

(Million rupees)

	1970/71 Budget	1970/71 Revised	1971/72 Budget
Development Expenditure			
Direct Outlay by the Central Government—			
Irrigation	1,000.0	934.0	1,000.0
Post Office	14.0	12.5	6.2
Telegraph and Telephone	200.0	198.6	120.0
Industrial Development	12.6	7.0	7.4
Civil Aviation	67.0	55.6	36.5
Broadcasting	26.0	25.1	12.9
Ports	35.3	23.9	14.1
New Federal Capitals	73.0	65.4	57.5
Civil Works	35.3	29.5	17.1
Food Storage and Other Works	128.8	82.9	57.7
Miscellaneous Investments	139.2	105.3	118.2
Other Expenditure	1.0	0.6	0.7
TOTAL	1,732.2	1,540.4	1,448.3
Loans to Semi-Independent Bodies, etc.	19.8	13.6	18.9
Loans and Grants to Provincial Governments	4,047.2	3,171.8	3,047.5
Less: Likely Shortfall	−80.5	—	−42.3
Total—Development Expenditure	5,718.7	4,725.8	4,472.4
Loans to Private Sector	278.1	175.2	258.7
Non-Development Expenditure	956.7	941.0	1,230.8
Contingency Item	200.0	30.0	290.0
Cash Balance Improvement	—	—	—
TOTAL DISBURSEMENT	7,153.5	5,872.0	6,251.9
Financed From			
Revenue Surplus	1,794.1	458.7	865.1
Debt raised in Pakistan (net)	2,895.0	3,240.0	72.0
Foreign Loans and Grants	3,206.5	2,353.0	2,825.2
Floating Debt (net)	−2,037.1	−1,741.7	279.0
Unfunded Debt (net)	210.4	223.0	235.8
Recoveries of Loans and Advances	491.7	485.2	549.1
Accretions to Reserve Funds	388.5	406.8	428.6
Other Deposits and Remittances (net)	48.7	50.1	5.5
Other Capital Receipts	126.1	193.1	49.8
Use of Cash Balance	29.6	203.8	941.8
TOTAL RESOURCES	7,153.5	5,872.0	6,251.9

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Index

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Being eastern is modern again

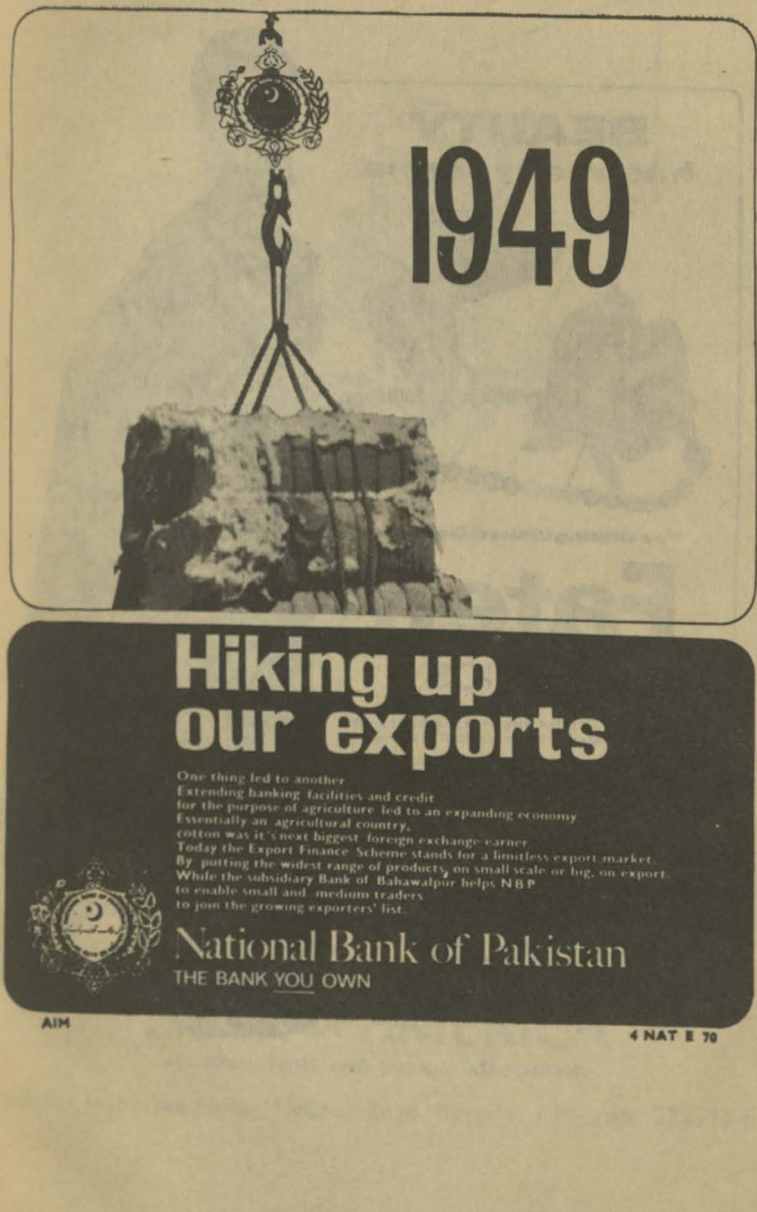


Once again the West looks up to us—for eastern music, for eastern menus, for eastern dresses and for eastern drink: to a drink like Rooh Afza, rich with the wisdom of the east, for the summer in the East. Rooh Afza has unmatched properties to cool your system and quench your thirst.

Rooh Afza
summer drink of the east

Hamdard Dawakhana (Waqf)
Karachi—Dacca—Lahore—Chittagong.

HMD, RA. 4/70


1949
Hiking up our exports
One thing led to another
Extending banking facilities and credit
for the purpose of agriculture led to an expanding economy
Essentially an agricultural country,
cotton was it's next biggest foreign exchange earner
Today the Export Finance Scheme stands for a limitless export market.
By putting the widest range of products, on small scale or big, on export.
While the subsidiary Bank of Bahawalpur helps NBP
to enable small and medium traders
to join the growing exporters' list.
National Bank of Pakistan
THE BANK YOU OWN
AIM
4 NAT E 70


BEAUTY
has many forms
For Distinguished Designs
Fateh
FABRICS
When fashion dictates elegance, luster, and the in-look then Fateh is the fabric that is called for.
Fateh have the know-how and the expertise to work out the elements of pretty designs, delicate shades and colours into the fabulous range of FAMOUS FATEH FASHION FABRICS.
FATEH TEXTILE MILLS LTD.
HYDERABAD
Spotlit

